# The Internationalization of Japanese Universities: A Case Study on the Integration of Foreign Faculty

Thesis submitted in accordance with the requirements of the University of Liverpool for the degree of Doctor of Education

Thomas Toshiki Nishikawa

December 7th, 2020

**Acknowledgements**

I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisors, Dr. Hazel Brown, Dr. Trish Lunt and Dr. Ian Willis, for their unconditional ongoing support, comments and encouragement that has allowed me to grow as a practitioner-researcher in higher education.

A special recognition also goes to Dr. Jim Chapman, Nicole Takeda, and Sandra Stevens for their valuable insights and suggestions in the earlier and latter stages of this thesis and to all the participants who devoted some of their precious time for this research. Also, a special thank-you to the administrative staff and committee members at ACU for allowing this research to take place within their institution.

Finally, I am hugely indebted to my wife, daughters, and extended family and close friends and colleagues for their unconditional support and constant encouragement throughout this journey.

Without the continual support and encouragement of all these people, this journey would have been impossible.

**Abstract**

This research examines the lived experiences of foreign faculty that use the medium of English for instruction at universities in Japan. Integration of foreign faculty into Japan's universities was the focus of the research. For several decades the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) through the Global 30 Initiative (G30) and the Top Global University Project (TGUP) have been trying to internationalise Japanese universities by promoting Japanese internationalization concepts. This has involved hiring foreign faculty to teach a significant number of additional courses in English in order to attract international and domestic students. However, this has led to institutions employing foreign faculty who do not possess a graduate degree and some universities creating a new position, termed the Practical English Instructor. It is a matter of debate as to whether these endeavours have aided internationalization of the Japanese university or impeded its growth.

The purpose of this thesis is to investigate the degree of integration of the foreign faculty at Asia Central University (a pseudonym) (ACU) and Japanese universities (macro), to analyse the ethos of governmental and institutional policy regarding foreign faculty (meso), and to analyse institutional policy at ACU relating to foreign faculty (micro). This research also examines the integration of a group of foreign faculty, tenured and non-tenured, into their department and institution.

The research philosophy underpinning this study draws on pragmatism and constructivism, allowing a critical stance that gave a voice to actors and participants that effectively empowered those that were not asked their opinion about an issue that affected them by decisions of others at ACU and other Japanese universities. The data was collected via a questionnaire and through semi-structured interviews with non-Japanese, tenured and non-tenured foreign faculty members at ACU. The data sets were analysed using thematic analysis (TA) following Braun and Clarke's (2006) six stage-method.

This research illustrates how actors can work with stakeholders at several levels to influence the strategies of internationalization in higher education in Japan. However, this research also found that employment status, either tenured or non-tenured foreign faculty, influenced personal perspectives reflecting differences of opinion. Recommendations are made as to how governmental and institutional policies could assist the foreign faculty community's integration into Japan's HE system.

*Keywords:* foreign faculty, internationalization, community, non-tenured, integration

**Statement of Original Authorship**

The work contained in this thesis has not been previously submitted to meet requirements for any other award or credit at this or any institution of higher education. To the best of my knowledge, the thesis is original, and all material or writing published or written by others and contained herein has been duly referenced and credited.

Signature:

Thomas T. Nishikawa

Date: December 7th ,2020 at Kyoto, Japan

## Table of Contents

## List of Tables

## List of Figures

## List of Abbreviations

| | |
|---|---|
| ACU | Asian Central University |
| ALT | Assistant Language Teacher |
| CoP | Communities of Practice |
| CT | Contact theory |
| CCS | Critical Case Sampling |
| CPD | Continuous Professional Development |
| DTTFF | Domestically Trained Tenured Foreign Faculty |
| EFL | English as a Foreign Language |
| ELT | English Language Teaching |
| EMI | English as a Medium of Instruction |
| FF | Foreign Faculty |
| G30 | Global 30 Initiative |
| HE | Higher Education |
| HEI | Higher Education Institution |
| HEIs | Higher Education Institutions |
| IF | International Faculty |
| IFM | International Faculty Member |
| JET | Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme |
| JHE | Japanese higher education |
| JRCIN | Japan Research Career Information Network |
| JPLT | Japanese Language Proficiency Test |
| JTE | Japanese Teachers of English |

| | |
|---|---|
| JUS | Japanese University System |
| MEXT | Ministry of Education, Culture, Science and Technology |
| NTTF | Non-Tenure Track Faculty |
| NTFF | Non-Tenured Foreign Faculty |
| OJT | On-the-Job Training |
| PEI | Practical English Instructor |
| PTFF | Part-Time Foreign Faculty |
| PFTFF | Permanent Full-time Foreign Faculty |
| PNTTFF | Permanent Non-Tenure Track Foreign Faculty |
| TESOL | Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages |
| TFTFF | Temporary Full-Time Foreign Faculty |
| TGUP | Top Global University Project |
| TTF | Tenure-Track Faculty |
| TFF | Tenured Foreign Faculty |
| TA | Thematic Analysis |
| TGUP | Top Global University Project |
| UoL | University of Liverpool |
| UofT | University of Toronto |
| VU | Vilnius University |

## Glossary of Japanese Terms

a*mae* – to 'indulge,' or 'take care of'

*budou* – spiritual lifestyle

*eikaiwa* – English language school

*gaikikujin kyoushi* – foreign instructor

*gaikokujin koushi* – foreign teacher

*Gakko Kyouiku* – The School Education Law of 1946

*genkan* – the place to leave one's shoes before entering a house

*higoukin* – non-full-time, non-regular, part-time, teacher/employee

*honne* – practice (real voice)

*joukyou* – assistant professor

*junanka* – flexibility

*jun-kyouju* – associate professor

*katakana English* – English vocabulary which has been adapted into the Japanese discourse with a different meaning and usage

*Kokusaika* – Japanese internationalization

*koma* – 90-minute lesson

*koushi* – lecturer

*koushi* – teacher

*kyouju* – professor

*kyoujukai* – tenured faculty committee

*Rinji Kyouiku Shingikai* – Ad Hoc Council on Education

*sennin koushi* – full-time tenured teacher (professor)

*shikata* – the way of doing something; *kata,* by itself, is translates as ‘form’

*shokutaku* – contract-non-tenured track

*soto* – outer

*tatemae* – ideology (public facade)

*Teikoku Daigaku Rei* – Imperial University Ordinance (1886)

*tokunin koushi* – associate teacher (professor)

*uchi* – inner

# Chapter 1: Introduction to the Thesis

## 1.0 Research Context

Nearly all aspects of culture, government, economy, social relations and higher education are influenced by globalization (Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbley, 2010). Altbach (2007) states that the characteristics of globalization in higher education (HE) include an increasingly integrated world economy, English as the lingua franca, and high mobility among workers. Tight (2012) suggests the world has become a "knowledge-based society" (p. 3), meaning that technological advances, increasing international competition and globalization are all concerned with learning, training, and higher education throughout life.

An integrated world economy has motivated many HE institutions to implement robust internationalization strategies (Stringer, 2018) to take advantage of increasing access to the lucrative international student market. In order to attract international students, HE institutions must provide course offerings in English, recognized as the global lingua franca (Seidlhofer, 2005), for both undergraduate and graduate courses. Additionally, there is an opportunity for mobile, qualified, international workers to apply their skills around the world as instructors in HEIs. When preparing for an influx of skilled foreign labour, it is necessary to ensure sufficient infrastructure is in place to ease the transition for international students and workers to adjust to local lifestyles, which may be vastly different from those with which they are familiar.

### 1.1 Assumptions for this Thesis

The primary aim of undertaking this thesis is to investigate factors that affect the satisfaction and length of stay for foreign faculty[1], often in non-tenured teaching positions, at HEIs in Japan. This thesis will explore how foreign faculty see themselves in terms of their role in internationalization, and how they approach the ease of moving their employment to other institutions and sometimes the requirement to do so. HEIs in Japan utilize foreign faculty to improve the institution's world rankings, where a higher ratio of foreign faculty to students can result in an increased score, and to enhance their reputation locally by offering a wider range of courses. Foreign faculty are also frequently employed as ambassadors in the local community and are often asked to help promote the university. HEIs would benefit from senior/seasoned foreign faculty who are skilled teachers, good ambassadors in the community, knowledgeable about the institution and capable of teaching a wide-range of courses. In addition, some Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) funding varies depending on the qualifications of faculty members meaning that more faculty possessing terminal degrees can lead to an increase in funding for individual HEIs. For these reasons, it is beneficial for HEIs to keep foreign faculty as long as possible.

The secondary aim for undertaking this thesis is to improve as a practitioner by more effectively engaging with the foreign faculty community, developing a better understanding of the relationship between HEIs and foreign faculty, how and what collaboration occurs between faculty members as well as any communities that develop as a result.

In attempting to investigate this phenomenon, there are several underlying assumptions which impact this thesis:

[1] Defined in Chapter 2. p. 57 (Huang, 2018a)

1. Retaining foreign faculty is presumed to be beneficial to HEIs because seasoned foreign faculty have had more time and opportunity to engage in research, collaboration and/or publications. This is an important component used in scoring for international rankings. In addition, the Global 30 (G30) and Top Global University Project (TGUP)[2] MEXT initiatives both have components requiring foreign faculty involvement in the internationalization of HE in Japan.

2. Integrating foreign faculty into the institution is considered positive as it will lead to foreign faculty being more satisfied and therefore wishing to stay longer at the institution. In this thesis, integrating foreign faculty means to welcome and orientate new foreign faculty into the university culture and to make them feel valued and appreciated. The benefits to the university include faculty members' increased awareness with institutional policies and procedures, familiarity with, the student body and effectiveness with completing administrative tasks which increase the longer faculty work at the institution. Longer stays are also presumed to lead to improved job performance, cost savings and reduced labour for the institution, such as less training/retraining time and fewer resources necessary for hiring and orientation for new foreign faculty members.

3. There are several underlying factors affecting the length of stay by foreign faculty, including domestic laws and institutional policies. For example, it is common for institutions to limit contract lengths for foreign faculty to five years. In addition, it can be very easy for foreign faculty to take advantage of employment opportunities at other universities, so it can be difficult for institutions to keep foreign faculty for extended periods. Universities differ significantly in work atmospheres and responsibilities placed upon foreign faculty, which can make job

[2] See Chapter 2 and 3 for context and description

opportunities at other HEIs appear more attractive. For instance, other HEIs may be appealing due to smaller class sizes, better (easier) course content (oral communication versus writing courses), perceived better quality of students, higher remuneration, easier commuting, a higher number of consecutive classes, better schedule, as well as easier communication with university administration.

4. Unlike faculty at western HEIs, the foreign faculty[3] subjects in this study most likely have not followed typical career paths to employment in HE in Japan. The majority of non-tenured and part-time faulty in western HEIs are working in their original field of expertise, possess academic backgrounds and hold or are in the process of completing a terminal degree in the field in which they teach. In contrast, large numbers of foreign faculty in Japan were hired and trained domestically at *eikaiwa*, *(for-profit, privately-owned English language schools)* as Japan Exchange and Teaching Program teachers (JETs), or Assistant Language Teachers (*ALTs Part of a government sponsored exchange program*). It is presumed that most foreign faculty in this study earned any postgraduate and terminal degrees while in Japan in order to further their job opportunities, primarily in English language teaching, specifically for the purpose of enhancing their employment opportunities in the HE market in Japan.

### 1.2 The Site for this Study

Asian Central University (ACU, a pseudonym) was selected as the location for this study. ACU, located in the Kansai region of Japan on the island of Honshu, is a teaching and research university with undergraduate and graduate programs in both the natural and social sciences, with approximately 800 tenured and non-tenured faculty members, including foreign faculty in

[3] All definitions are defined in Chapter 2

15 departments, and an international student body representing over 30 nationalities (academic year 2018-19). Also, ACU's educational philosophy purports to foster internationally-minded students who will actively engage in the globalized world and to instil principles with the capacity to make a unique contribution in an expanding globalized world. ACU is considered to be ranked in the top 100 universities in Japan out of a total of 778 (MEXT, 2019), in the top 500 universities in Asia and the top 2,000 universities in the world by the Times World University Rankings (THE, 2019). Therefore, ACU is well-suited for research into efforts at globalization by a typical private university in Japan in terms of assessing current readiness for attracting international students and faculty.

While ACU has some international students on campus, the focus of this study will be on foreign faculty and their interactions with and feelings toward the institution. While the integration of international students into life at university in Japan is an important area, that is beyond the scope of this study. However, given the importance foreign faculty play in the promotion and reputation of the university, it may be that by investigating ways to enhance the length of stay and integration of foreign faculty, there may be better results in terms of globalization efforts on the part of the institution. As a first step in enhancing university rankings, reputation and globalization efforts, it is important to determine ways to find and keep quality foreign faculty, which is the foundation for successful institutional globalization. This dissertation will investigate the integration of foreign faculty into the university, their interactions with other faculty members, factors affecting their longevity at ACU, their feelings towards the institution and their impressions of integration efforts in the world of HE in Japan.

### 1.3 Research Aims and Objectives

This research aims to investigate foreign faculty, in particular non-tenured foreign faculty working in the Japanese university system. The study examines how their integration or lack of it may or may not contribute to the internationalization of the Japanese university in the context of changing governmental and institutional policies that aim to internationalize the domestic HE from within.

The objectives of this research are to examine the personal stories of the foreign faculty at a private Japanese university, in other words, to explore individual lives and communities of these foreign faculty working in Japan's HEIs. The research will include an overview of Japanese government policy (Global 30 and Top Global University Project) alongside an examination of the institutional polices of one HEI as a case study. There will be a specific focus on how these policies affect the integration of non-tenured foreign faculty in an internationalizing university system.

This study aims to investigate how Japanese governmental (MEXT) policies regarding internationalization impact current foreign faculty at ACU. This thesis will also explore how these foreign faculty see the effects of institutional and MEXT policies in terms of their working environment and communities along with factors that affect their ability to become a contributor at ACU in meaningful ways to them. Furthermore, this thesis will explore the role, according to the participants in this study, of foreign faculty in the internationalization of Japanese universities, and more specifically, within faculties at ACU.

### 1.4 Researcher as Insider and Outsider

Within qualitative research, the role of an insider or an outsider researcher is not clearly defined and at times is circumstantial (Dwyer & Buckle, 2009). Consequently, qualitative

researchers need to be aware of how they can be both an insider and an outsider, which includes potential advantages and disadvantages of each within the paradigm of qualitative research. Qualitative researchers who are insiders decipher the participants' lives from a privileged perspective, having access to their participants' intimate life stories.

The researcher in this case is both an insider and an outsider, which has allowed me a range of perspectives from which to view the phenomena uncovered in this research initiative. I have extensive experience in English language teaching, including being a member of foreign faculty at several HEIs in Japan. Further, I was raised in Canada in a bilingual and bicultural setting and my studies at western HEIs in addition to my long-life experience in Japan have given me a deep understanding of the issues at play in this area of study.

I was born and raised in Canada to Japanese immigrant parents. Japanese language and culture were present in the household alongside a typical multicultural Canadian experience outside in the community, both socially and educationally. I then worked professionally in newspaper and television. These insider and outsider perspectives will affect all aspects of this thesis from the impetus, research design, data collection, and analysis up to and including recommendations.

In this thesis, there were several unique barriers to overcome. I am recognizable to the eye as being of Japanese heritage. Moreover, I hold Japanese citizenship and possess Japanese language ability. This brings a certain familiarity and perhaps comfort for Japanese faculty and staff when communicating with me. Since I am also a native English speaker with Western upbringing, I possesses an ease and comfort around the foreign faculty who participated in this study. As a result, during interviews, I was able to interpret body language and other nuances which informed my decisions about, for example, follow-up questioning. I enjoy membership in

these two very different groups, and this allows me to move in and out of either culture with ease. However, my obvious Japanese background, the academic experience within Japan and my heritage may have impacted on how the participants engaged with me and the research. The impact of these phenomena will be discussed in the conclusion.

One of the significant elements to consider in the research is that I am a doctoral student employed as a lecturer at the same university under study, thus underlining my status as an insider researcher. Being a member of the group under investigation carries risks of researcher bias so consideration was necessary to ensure validity of the research outcomes. However, I can also claim an outsider status in this research since I have no prior relationship to the group and have no authority over the participants or their participation. This is applicable before, during and after the study. Having recognized the hybrid insider/outsider researcher role early on in this thesis, this allowed me to bridge the relationship between 'us' and 'them' (Kanuha, 2000), thereby diminishing researcher bias and fostering participant trust in the research.

**1.5 Researcher Positionality**

Researcher positionality, also referred to as one's 'worldview' is developed over time and influenced by the researcher's background, life experiences, convictions, beliefs, interests and field of research (Creswell, 2014). According to Petersen and Gencel (2013), a worldview and its 'reality' is constructed by humans in their own unique context. Malterud (2001) suggests that these constructs affect a researcher's choice of research area, their perspective, the methodology, how the findings are analysed, as well as the framing and communication of conclusions (see Figure 1.1). These factors will impact how the researcher's worldview shapes each stage of the study.

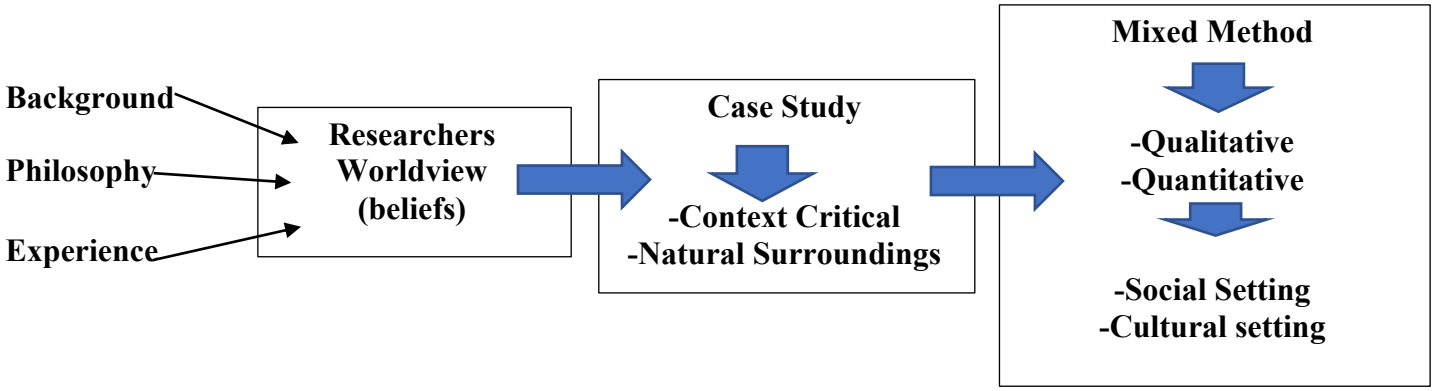
The researcher acknowledges that this dissertation is a process that requires him to be aware of his positionality throughout the research. Milner (2007) argues that researchers need to be aware of "dangers seen, unseen, and unforeseen [when] knowing and experiencing the world" (p.388). In order to address these concerns, the researcher continuously examined his positionality during this thesis and maintained a research diary with his rationale for decisions made along the way (Appendix I). He also discussed his decisions with advisors, peers and co-workers to better understand the implications of his worldview on this dissertation.

The researcher has the potential to impact the research process and needs to be mindful of their responsibility to the participants of this thesis and the institutions involved. Miled (2019) states that "positionality is central in [one's] research as it unveils the complexity of the 'Self' and the 'Other' and how the fluidity of both govern the relationship between research-researched" (p. 8.). Therefore, it is necessary to design the study such that the data from the participants is accurately and honestly collected and analysed to the extent possible, with full transparency and recognition of inherent bias of the researcher (see Chapter 4).

The researcher acknowledges challenges with the complexities of positioning oneself as being an insider-outsider. As Patton (2015) contends, it can be both beneficial and challenging for the researcher to act as participant and observer in one's research. A practitioner/researcher has "the power to be transformative at the institutional, communal, interpersonal, and individual levels" (Ravitch, 2014, p. 9). However, Coghlan (2014) warns of the multiple ethical concerns that emerge when the faculty member is also the researcher, mainly in terms of decision-making where the researcher must be aware of their bias present in their own value systems and conceptual frameworks.

The researcher made every effort to recognize and address bias by recording decisions at the time they were made with honesty and thoroughness in the logbook/journal. In addition, it was paramount to treat every participant and their data with the full guardianship, consideration and accurate interpretation to represent the participant's perspective.

**Figure 1.1 Worldview and research design**




## 1.6 Researchers Reflexivity

The researcher's positionality can be described in part by reflexivity. According to Bourke (2014), "Reflexivity involves a self-scrutiny on the part of the researcher: a self-conscious awareness of the relationship between the researcher and "others"" (p. 2). In addition, reflexivity helps to enhance transparency and increase self-awareness because it requires a researcher to question their own assumptions (Engward & Davis, 2015). Milner (2007) states that the researcher needs to pay careful attention to their own and other cultural systems of knowing and experiencing the world. Engward and Davis (2015) suggest that the researcher consider, for example, their approach to data is first collecting it and then determining how it may be influenced by the researcher's positionality, as well as how their personal perspective might impact the data analysis. The researcher should be transparent about decisions they made at all stages of the research undertaking (Bourke, 2014) (See chapters 4 and 5 for details).

### 1.7 Thesis Structure

Chapter 1 has offered an overview of the impetus for this thesis, with the research aims and objectives. Along with an introduction to Asia Central University (ACU) as the site for an investigation into the challenges of nurturing an environment where foreign faculty desire to come and stay to work long-term in Japan. Also, insight into the researcher's positionality as both an insider and an outsider to this thesis.

Chapter 2 examines the thesis' context and provides definitions used in this research, such as internationalization, international faculty, foreign faculty, and foreign faculty in this research. Also, it examines university rankings in Asia along with an overview of Japanese educational reforms and a summary of the Japanese university (daigaku). Furthermore, there is a synopsis of the use of English as a second language (ESL), English as a foreign language (EFL), English as medium of instruction (EMI), and English as a lingua franca (ELF) in this research.

Chapter 3 examines the literature related to international faculty integration, along with challenges, obstacles and barriers faced by these faculty, both internationally and domestically. Tenured and non-tenured faculty and how intercultural factors and customs affect the integration into a domestic HE system are addressed next. This is followed by an examination of theoretical frameworks, including Grounded theory, Thematic analysis, Communities of Practice and Contact theory. The literature review also discusses the strengths and limitations of the approaches. It presents the theoretical constructs used for the study and ends by highlighting discrepancies in the existing literature and the research questions.

Chapter 4 explains the method of carrying out this study, outlining the nature and methodology of the research, and developing the steps used to collect and evaluate data. Chapter 5 summarizes the outcomes and discusses some of the overarching trends suggested by

quantitative and qualitative data analysis. Chapter 6 closes the thesis by delineating assumptions, studying weaknesses, and offering suggestions and some final reflections.

# Chapter 2 Higher Education in the Japanese Context

## 2.0 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the context where the research took place, and the work environment from which the participants were drawn, and this impact on the research. It also includes insights into the rankings of select universities in an Asian context, the use and importance of English course offerings and how universities value it as a recruitment tool. The chapter then outlines relevant key terms, and then discuss the philosophy underpinning this study and the rationale for this research.

## 2.1 Internationalization and Globalization

The mobility of international students and scholars, including faculty and their research, is one of the oldest forms of internationalization in higher education (Huang, 2017). It is necessary to clearly examine differences between internationalization and globalization for this thesis given the diverse and complex manner in which they affect higher education (HE).

Globalization is concerned with issues such as improvements in technology leading to instantaneous world-wide communication resulting in an "explosive growth in the quantity and accessibility of knowledge [leading to] integration and interdependence of world financial and economic systems" (Grunzweig & Rinehart, 2002, p.7). Altbach (2007) states that globalization impacts HEIs in three ways: an increasingly integrated world economy, English as the lingua franca, and high mobility among workers. These three factors greatly impact the ability of foreign faculty to find work in other countries, for example as English teachers outside of their own countries, and the ease with which they can move around the world. Conceptually, globalization can be viewed as a state of being in the world that affects HEIs, but it is not a philosophy or strategic plan for stakeholders to undertake.

In terms of the differences between internationalization and globalization, Knight (2003), comments that “globalization is a phenomenon of a process [while] internationalization of higher education is both a response [an action] to globalization” (Knight, 2003a, p. 2). In contrast to globalization, internationalization is more of an affective approach in an effort to take advantage of increases in mobility and technology for workers and students around the world. Consequently, this thesis is concerned with investigating the strategies, and the impact on foreign faculty of such strategies, which are being undertaken by HEIs in Japan in order to benefit from the state of globalization. Therefore, in this study, the term internationalization will be used to represent outward strategic approaches, polices and guidelines taken by HEIs in Japan to better position themselves in the world and take advantage of opportunities.

Knight (2008) defines internationalization as “the flow of people, culture, ideas, values, knowledge, technology, and economy across borders resulting in a more interconnected and interdependent world” (p. 4), and “the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, function or delivery of post-secondary education” (p. 2). Similarly, Ho, Lin and Yang (2015) have defined internationalization as "the process of integrating an international dimension into the teaching, research, and service functions of an institution of higher education" (p. 55). In the Japanese context, Yonezawa (2011) states that "the internationalization of higher education has assumed a key position on domestic policy agendas, not only for educational and scientific reasons but also increasingly due to socio-economic considerations" (p.199). Goodman (2007) contends that internationalization (*kokusaika*) in Japan, along with a lack of consensus on an exact meaning of the term, is a fashionable trend, with the implication that the popularity will eventually end when something more attractive takes its place. Internationalization in HEIs in Japan can often be seen as the effort to employ

identifiable foreign faculty on campus to offer additional programmes and courses and, more importantly, to enhance the reputation and ranking of the institution.

According to Altbach and Yudkevich (2017a), many countries and institutions see employing "non-native [international] academics as a key part of internationalization strategies" (p. 9) and further suggest that "international faculty are a growing and increasingly important part of the global academic labour force, bringing diversity, new perspectives, and skills wherever they go" (p. 8). Japanese HE in the last three decades has started its "brain gain" attempts to internationalize (Yonezawa, Ishida, & Horta, 2013, p. 2). In addition, Japan's HE has been directly influenced by outside forces. As Yonezawa (2018) states, "modern higher education system in Japan has its historical origin as implantation of mainly Western academic tradition" (p. v). Stringer (2018) affirms that the rise of Japanese HE reflects a society that is grounded in knowledge and believes that an integral part of a knowledge society is internationalization. At Japanese HEIs, this has led to an increase in the recruitment and hiring of international or non-domestic faculty and teaching staff. With this in mind, there are several areas which merit consideration. What is the long-term plan for these international 'visitors'? What infrastructure needs to be put in place? How successful has Japan been? Is Japan now integrating these visitors into the community and into the HEI? Do Japanese universities consider international faculty as an essential part of the organization or a temporary bandage for internationalization? There is comparatively little research on this.

In the Japanese context, there is considerable tension between the view of internationalization as a long-term effort to enhance multi-culturalism and cross-cultural understanding in HE as opposed to internationalization in Japan for the purpose of being 'popular' in order to generate a greater profit. In this way, the Japanese system of privatized HE,

often family-owned or corporately run business, would naturally look favourably upon any strategy that would improve business. However, there is some question as to how stable and long-term a business approach to internationalization might be in a changing world economy, given for instance, the impact of a global pandemic such as Covid-19 in 2020.

Ota (2018) states, Japan's reforms on internationalization in higher education have seen slow progress despite decades of state-sponsored support. According to recent research (Huang, 2018a), Japanese higher education internationalization may exist in quantitative terms; however, such measures may not, in reality, represent the fundamental realities of internationalization. Japan's challenges of internationalizing higher education demonstrate how tensions between policy and practice complicate the implementation of government-driven policies. Burgess, Gibson, Klaphake, & Selzer, (2010) argue that Japan is currently struggling with balancing opposing forces of nationalistic closing in or cosmopolitan opening up because Japan has historically prioritized nationalistic policies in higher education to further its global positioning.

Evidence of the value Japan places on positioning itself in the world, but not necessarily changing its traditions, is evident from Hashimoto (2013), who describes Japan's idea of internationalization as the country promoting itself to the international community while remaining distinctly Japanese and not becoming part of the wider world. Hashimoto comments that “Japan’s concept of internationalization is about promoting Japan to the international community, not about becoming part of it" (p. 29). Consequently, Hashimoto believes Japan should not “remain a monolingual state in order to stand as a unified entity against the rest of the world” (p. 29). Alongside this, Hashimoto's analysis of MEXT's foreign language policies suggests that the government's dualistic ideals differentiating Japan through referring to "us" and "them" would prevent Japan from being part of the international community.

Ota (2018) states, although internationalization strategies through changes in institutional policies have been able to introduce a veneer of internationality or improve the outward-looking international picture, it cannot be assumed that internationalization is being utilized to change the university as a whole regarding its values. These are examples of the changes facing universities regarding the diverse perceptions of internationalization.

According to Yonezawa, Ishida and Horta (2013), Japan has been recruiting international faculty since the mid-nineteenth century. Furthermore, Whitsed and Wright (2011) suggest that "Japan is one country that has responded to globalization in and through its education system through internationalization" (p. 28). In relation to HE, this response is most evident in Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science and Technology (MEXT). MEXT has created several government initiatives, most notably the Global 30 Initiative (G30) (MEXT, 2009) and the Top Global University Project (TGUP) (MEXT, 2014a) to provide leadership for HEIs with respect to internationalization, and to raise the global ranking of Japanese universities in order to attract international students and faculty.

The growth forecast in international education was expected to expand from 1.8 million non-domestic students in 2000 to approximately 7 million by 2025 (Knight, 2015; Choudaha & Van Rest, 2018). This meant that HEIs needed to be prepared, with the infrastructure in place to take advantage of a potential influx of international students and international faculty in the near future. However, the recent Covid-19 global pandemic has led many HE institutions to re-assess their future endeavours involving international student recruitment (Marinoni, van't Land, & Jensen, 2020). For instance, 84 % of Mainland Chinese, and Hong Kong students in a study in late 2020 indicated that they were not interested in studying aboard after the pandemic is under control (Mok, Xiong, Ke, & Cheung, 2021). The impact of Covid-19 will greatly affect the plans

of international students and the growth of the market for studying aboard which may further impact the status and employment opportunities of foreign faculty around the world in the coming years.

**2.2 Global Rankings – Asia**

The influence of global rankings on universities has been well established and widely critiqued across a wide variety of disciplines and fields (see Hazelkorn, 2013; Horan, & O'Regan, 2021; Millot, 2015; Marginson, Van der Wende, 2007).

There has been considerable criticism of global ranking methodology, the choice of indicators and weightings, the quality of the data and its reliability as an actual measure of performance (Hazelkon, 2013). For example, one category is the number of Nobel Laureates at the university, with the underlying assumption being that it would lead to higher teaching quality (Horan, & O'Regan, 2021). However, with so few Nobel Laureates, it seems overly harsh to penalize universities for not having one on staff. Another issue is that the criteria are mostly suited for STEM or research-intensive institutions, which raises questions about the validity in terms of suitability of such criteria used to rank all universities in the world. Another category assesses the number of academic publications by faculty. One must only assume that these are publications in English, which would put countries and institutions, whose first language is not English, at a disadvantage. The Shanghai ranking (ARWU) nor the Times Higher Education University Ranking (THE) which are among the most respected and utilized in the world (Aguillo, Bar-Ilan, Levene & Ortega, 2010; Marginson, 2014b; Safon, 2019), attempt to assess teaching quality nor student outcomes (Marginson, & Van der Wende, 2007), which would seem important criterion in measuring and ranking success.

Asia is a growing destination for international study abroad (Kuroda, Sugimura, Kitamura, & Asada, 2018). This has led to increased competition for international students and foreign faculty among HEIs in Asia, which are racing to improve their world rankings, expand course offerings, and position themselves as preferred destinations in the lucrative market of international study (Deem, Mok, & Lucas, 2008).

Although there are significant concerns about the validity of international ranking organizations, they remain well-respected in Asian HE. Recent rankings for universities in Asia have shown mixed results in terms of improvement. In 2020, Asia's most highly ranked institution, the National University of Singapore, was ranked in 11$^{th}$ position, up from 22$^{nd}$ in 2014. The top institution on the Chinese mainland, Tsinghua University, was ranked 16$^{th}$ in 2020 compared to 47$^{th}$ in 2014; while in South Korea, Seoul National University has improved to 31$^{st}$ from 37$^{th}$ position in the same time frame. In contrast, the University of Tokyo, one of Japan's most respected universities, was 23$^{rd}$ in 2004, fell to 46$^{th}$ in 2018, and stands at 36$^{th}$ in the most recent rankings (see Table 2.1). These universities were chosen as examples to illustrate recent trends in rankings within Asian HE and serve to underscore concerns in Japanese government and within HEIs nationally. Relevant research, which could help to illuminate areas for improvement in Japanese HEIs, could be helpful at this time.

**Table 2.1:** THE University Rankings for Asian Institutions

| Institution | Rank (2014) Overall | Rank (2020) Overall | Rank 2020 International Outlook |
|---|---|---|---|
| National University of Singapore | 22 | 11 | 95.5 |
| Tsinghua University | 47 | 16 | 47.4 |
| Seoul National University | 37 | 31 | 35.8 |
| University of Tokyo | 23 | 36 | 38.2 |

Source: Times Higher Education Rankings (2019)

An examination of how the scores in Table 2.1 are calculated, highlights the importance placed on an international posture. One category, termed 'International Outlook', takes into consideration the proportion of the international students and international faculty, as well as international collaboration at the university with a weighting of 7.5 percent of the total score. Higher proportions, meaning more foreign faculty, receive higher scores.

Different countries in Asia have different approaches to internationalization, but each place an importance on having foreign faculty on campus. China considers higher education as part of their nation-building approach meaning that they are developing a higher education system focused on improving international stature while advancing the globalization of China as a nation (Yang & Welch, 2012). Furthermore, the Chinese government is taking a top-down approach in policy and governance by implementing extensive funding initiatives at both local and national levels (Huang, 2015) to ensure the formation of world-class research universities align closely with Chinese national policies, plans, and goals (Lin, 2019). According to Wu and Huang (2018), international faculty have played a key role in elevating the status of Chinese universities among the international community and now represent a substantial resource in the development of Chinese HEIs.

Since early 2001, South Korea has been actively encouraging HEIs to offer English as a medium of instruction (EMI), which is directly linked to the Korean government evaluations of HEIs and impacts various incentive programs like the Brain Korea 21 project (Byun, Chu, Kim, Park, Kim, & Jung, 2011). Internationalization in South Korea means introducing foreign ideas and approaches, usually from western cultures, into the established South Korean university setting. As Kim (2016), explains:

> Western faculty members also bring ancillary benefits to Asian HEIs that make them valuable in other important ways. The Western faculty members bring with them Western pedagogical practices, ideas, and standards, and it is this novel learning ecology that Asian HEIs believe will attract more students (p.79).

South Korean universities have increased EMI over the last ten years as one way to position themselves more competitively in the global higher education market. This has not always been entirely successful, resulting in tension between what is foreign and what is indigenous to South Korea (Kim, 2016). Teacher-centred Confucianist practices in classrooms can result in teacher-student relationships that are characterized by restrictions on students' freedom of action and a lack of free exchange between faculty and students (Ghazarian & Youhne, 2015). This cultural characteristic can be a challenge when welcoming international students and faculty.

In fact, world rankings heavily favour countries with a westernized approach to education as evidenced by categories such as foreign faculty proportions, international diversity and teaching reputation. Countries in Asia, particularly Japan, with a strong history of Confucianism, may be at a disadvantage in a scoring system driven by western values and standards, particularly with respect to teaching effectiveness.

### 2.2.1 Confucianism and World Rankings

Japan has a long history of Confucianism as an approach in society and education (Tucker, 2018). Marginson (2014a) illustrates the differences and challenges of a Confusion system in terms of educational culture such as the entrance exam system in South Korean and Japan (see Table 2.2). There are significant differences not only in educational philosophy, but also the role of the state in higher education, particularly the oversight of public universities and governance.

There is concern over the effectiveness of the Japanese government's leadership and MEXT polices (Hashimoto, 2013; Ota, 2018). For example, English-language course offerings in the G30 scheme are only open to foreign students, though some participating universities do allow local students to enrol in such courses (Hashimoto, 2013). The result is courses taken by foreign students taught by foreign faculty at a Japanese university, but no discernable benefit for domestic students. Furthermore, universities that received the subsidy for their participation in the G30 are motivated to utilize specially designated professors and foreign faculty, who are hired solely for the duration of the funding period. Their instructions are to move forward with the latest governmental mandate on internationalisation, then they are jettisoned when the program is completed or changed. In certain cases, when funding is no longer available, the programme is terminated. There are a few instances where new funding is provided, or where funding is taken over by the institution (Ota, 2018).

The G30 and Top Global University programs (TGUP) undertaken by MEXT in 2009, and revised in 2014, have primarily been designed to step up the internationalization of universities in Japan (Yonezawa & Yonezawa, 2016). The goal is to create university cultures which can, through the introduction of foreign faculty and ideas, lead to more diverse opinions,

enhanced international perspectives and a new range of skills and teaching approaches (Altbach & Yudkevich, 2017b).

Japanese HEIs and the government are trying to take advantage of the trend of rising mobility among international faculty by increasing the number of non-Japanese faculty to enhance the reputation of Japanese HEIs. This allows more diverse course offerings, particularly those offered in English, resulting in a better appeal to international students and, ideally, an improvement in their world rankings.

**Table 2.2** Comparison of Post -Confucian and English Language Higher Education Systems

| | Post -Confucian Systems (East Asia) | Western System (UK, Australia, New Zealand, Canada) |
|---|---|---|
| Character of nation-state | Comprehensive, central, delegates to provinces. Politics in command of economy and civil society. State draws best graduates. | Limited, division of powers, separate from civil society and economy. Some anti-statism. Unitary. |
| Educational culture | Confucian commitment to self-cultivation via learning. Education as filial duty and producer of status via exam competition (and producer of global competitiveness). | Ideology of state guaranteed equal opportunity through education as path to wealth and status, open to all in society. Education common road to wealth/status, within advancing prosperity. |
| State role in higher education | Big. State supervises, shapes, drives and selectively funds institutions. Over time increased delegation to partly controlled presidents. | From distance. Policy, regulation, funding supervise market, shape activity. Autonomous vice-chancellors. |
| Financing of higher education | State financed infrastructure, part of tuition (especially early in model), scholarships, merit aid. Household funds spent on tuition and private tutoring, even poor families. | Less state financed infrastructure now. Tuition loans, some aid. Growing household investment but less than East Asia. Austerity. |
| Dynamics of research | Part household funding of tuition, ideology of world class universities (WCU), university hierarchy: together enable | Research funded (more in UK) by government, also finances tuition. Less philanthropy than US. Basic science, applied |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | rapid state investment in research at scale. Applied and basic. State intervention. | growth, dreams of Intellectual property (IP). |
| Hierarchy and social selection | Steep university hierarchy. "One-chance" universal competition with selection into prestige institutions. WCUs are fast track for life. | Competition for place in university hierarchy mediated by school results with some second chances. WCUs provide strong start. |
| Fostering of world-class universities | Part of tradition, universal target of family aspirations. Support for building of WCUs by funding and regulation. Emerging global agenda. | Ambivalence in national temperament and government policy on status of top institutions. Private and public funding hit ceilings. |

Adapted from Marginson (2014a)

The history of Confucianism and its role in Japanese education, such as teacher-centred learning, the importance of hierarchy and standardized, high-stakes testing, and lack of critical thinking make it difficult for Japanese HEIs to score well on internationally recognized ranking systems even with the introduction of such initiatives such as G30 and TGUP. This has led to many challenges for governmental bodies and concerns over educational approaches over many years.

### 2.3 Japanese Education Reforms

Educational reform in Japan has undergone a series of major changes and policy decisions in an effort to address changes in Japanese culture and the influence of western values into Japanese culture over many years.

The Meiji government introduced the Imperial University Ordinance in 1886 (*Teikoku daigaku rei*). The ordinance included imperial universities, which were fundamental for research in the arts and the sciences, along with being necessary for the modernization of Japanese society. Tokyo University, founded in 1877, was the first imperial university (Nagai, 1971, cited in Okada, 2005). The Ordinance of 1886 did not ban the foundation of private universities, but it

did not promote them either. However, several private universities did come into existence with the most well-known ones being Doshisha University founded by Nijima Jo in 1875 and Waseda University founded by Okuma Shigenobu in 1882, both of which still exist today. They were established to foster an atmosphere of academic freedom and critical rationalism (Goodman, 2010; Okada, 2005).

In the late nineteenth century, Japan embarked on the teaching of the English language as a vehicle of transformation. However, by the 1880s, there was a concern that the Japanese were losing their sense of cultural identity and their national language (Nagatomo, 2012). When Japan slowed down its Westernization, several changes took place. In 1883, Tokyo University made Japanese its official language of instruction, and this led to newly trained Japanese faculty replacing foreign faculty at the university. Up until 1911, foreign-produced textbooks existed in the Japanese education system, however, the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture replaced them all with Japanese versions at that time. During the Taisho era (1913-1925), the University Code of 1918 provided a legal framework for the establishment of new universities. Within twenty years, there were 120 new private universities established. By 1938, over 70 percent of university-aged students attended private universities in Japan – a ratio that still prevails today (Okada, 2005).

The post-war education system started in 1946. The first attempt to modernize Japan's education system was marked by the introduction of *Gakko kyouiku* (The School Education Law) in 1946, which was intended to emphasize the principle of equality of opportunity (Okada, 2005). As part of the 1946 Educational Law, based on recommendations from the U.S. Occupational Forces, HE was designed to reflect the American system: four-year university courses and two-year junior colleges. By the 1950s, there were 149 new junior colleges. From

the 1960s to the 1970s, there was an unprecedented surge in the expansion of education in Japan. The government and the private sector introduced two approaches to education, namely the 'manpower approach' and the 'human capita approach' in an attempt to stress the link between economic growth through the development of human ability (Okada, 2005). Furthermore, by the 1970s, the notion spread that Japanese students should have an understanding of the English language, along with the idea that American and British culture was an important tool to understand the outside world: this had a meaningful impact on English language education in Japan (Doyon, 2001; Okada, 2005).

In the 1980s, Prime Minister Nakasone established the *Rinji kyouiku shingikai* (Ad Hoc Council on Education) to introduce reforms that took the form of liberalization, diversification, and globalization in education. The council wanted to emphasise flexibility (*junanka*), which would allow parents to have greater choice concerning their child's participation in HE and the placement of students in HE based on their individual abilities. This allowed HEIs to diversify the curriculum, introduce new, more flexible, entrance examination methods for private universities. The latter permitted institutions to move from school-centred education to 'lifelong learning.' This was one of the first steps to internationalization, which opened the door to an increase in the number of international students (Okada, 2005).

In the early 2000s, MEXT introduced 'the education reform plan for the 21st century' or 'Rainbow Plan' (Vallance, 2008). This plan included details to improve student scholastic proficiency "in easy to understand classes, and at the tertiary level to promote the establishment of universities of international standard" (p. 283). This came about because the 1990s was known as the "lost decade" (Hashimoto, 2007). During this period, the Japanese began to doubt the ability of the Japanese system to deal with domestic and foreign issues when the economic

bubble burst. This period led to unsatisfactory English language learning outcomes and concerns about outdated teaching habits due to antiquated teaching approaches and ineffective governmental polices. Students learned obscure grammar, focused on the translation of texts, and prepared for university entrance exams that tested only their grammar and vocabulary knowledge of English. Although dated, Hashimoto (2007) believed that great care had been taken by the Japanese government to ensure that the learning of English would not undermine Japanese cultural identity and the many good qualities of the Japanese culture. However, more recently, Leong, (2017) believes that MEXT has been largely unsuccessful and is now attempting to address past problems by introducing further changes to the university system; such as, mandatory courses taught only in English for first year university students.

The Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science and Technology (MEXT) has made repeated efforts to create effective policy to bring Japanese education more in line with international standards and practices. These policies have met with varying degrees of success.

### 2.4 Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) two Policy Initiatives

Efforts to internationalize are well underway in Japan. In 2008, Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) set itself the goal of "improving international competitiveness" (MEXT, 2008, p. 10), requiring a nationwide improvement in proficiency in English skills. MEXT's (2018) report on *The Future Improvement and Enhancement of English Education: Five Recommendations on the English Education Reform Plan Responding to the Rapid Globalization* states that English will be the common language used in Japan. Additionally, the *English Education Reform Plan corresponding to Globalization* (MEXT, 2014; 2020) laid out how primary to secondary schools in Japan would implement

English as a lingua franca and English as an international language for instruction in domestic schools. At the HEI level, MEXT is implemented policies on two fronts aimed at improving English proficiency and attracting more international students and scholars. Starting in 2008, MEXT instituted several reforms to "develop an educational environment where Japanese people can acquire the necessary English skills" (MEXT, 2008, p. 17).

The year 2008 also marked the start of the Global 30 programme (G30), where MEXT designated 13[4] core universities as "centres for internationalization" (MEXT, 2008, p. 18). Within these 13 institutions, seven public universities (including University of Tokyo, Kyoto and Osaka) and six private universities were selected (including Doshisha, Keio, Ritsumeikan, and Waseda University). All of these HEIs were already among Japan's most prestigious, attended by many of the country's brightest students and were the most popular destinations for international students coming to study in Japan (Hollenbeck, 2019). Part of the responsibility of being selected for the G30 programme included that these HEIs were charged with recruiting international scholars and students and assisting in the production of English training programmes and teaching materials for Japanese teachers of English.

In 2014, MEXT announced the Top Global University Project (TGUP) (MEXT, 2014a). TGUP aimed to enhance the international compatibility and competitiveness of higher education in Japan. One concern with the roll out was the definition of English-language courses; universities used words such as international, policy, urban, and global studies with little indication as to the actual course curriculum. None of the selected universities indicated the medium-of-instruction (MOI) to describe course delivery (Hashimoto, 2013). The project provided enhanced support for the chosen universities to enable them to lead Japanese HE in

[4] 13 universitas actually participated in the programme

efforts at internationalization with hopes of improving their rankings to return to the top 100 ranking in the world.

The G30 and TGUP are examples of Japan's most recent approaches to internationalization, and for this thesis, gathering data on the perspectives of foreign faculty as to the effectiveness of this approach would provide valuable insight. These education reform plans outline how the Japanese government believes internationalization of HE in Japan will be enhanced through the integration of English language study at Japanese universities.

### 2.5 Global 30 Initiative and Top Global University Project

The Global 30 Project (G30) was the first government initiative since the 1980s to increase the number of overseas students studying in Japan (Hollenback, 2019; Ishikawa, 2011). One of the central concepts of the G30 was to seize the critical opportunities that come with a more internationalised higher education environment, such as intellectual resources and international alliances provided through increases in foreign faculty and international students coming to Japan (Aleles, 2015). However, this is in contrast to a historical desire to protect the Japanese national identity from outside influences (Burgess et al., 2010).

Stakeholders acknowledge the need to reform HE, but did not embraced governmental reforms until the G30. Previously, out-of-date norms and traditions hampered Japan's leading HEIs, which were accountable only to the local community and establishment rather than to MEXT (Ishikawa, 2011). To encourage reforms, MEXT conceived the G30 in 2001 (Yonezawa, 2010). Initially, only 13 universities were chosen instead of the initially proposed 30. Also, MEXT introduced language degree programmes that did not require students enrolled in these programmes to have any Japanese language proficiency (Ishikawa, 2011). In 2009, MEXT announced the 13 universities that would be part of the project: seven national and six private

institutions. Each university was allotted USD $4.2 million per year for up to five years (MEXT, 2009). The expectations were to internationalize all 13 institutions, which meant that each institution needed to attract foreign students and faculty (Burgess et al., 2010; Ishikawa, 2011; Seargeant, 2011). Ishikawa (2011) claims that the catalyst for this policy come from those eager to engage or embrace the world of international education. This entailed opening up Japan's HEI to the world like never before, such as allowing foreign students to enrol in courses and granting tenure to foreign faculty, unheard of such a scale prior to the G30 roll out.

G30 required an increase in the number of faculty qualified to teach new courses that were specifically designed to attract international students (Rivers, 2010; Yonezawa, 2014). The proportion of foreign faculty was very small compared to universities outside of Japan (Goodman, 2010) and this amount decreased between 2007 to 2008 to 3.4 percent (Yonezawa, 2010) because of domestic factors, such as a decrease in university-aged student enrolment nationally. The Japan Research Career Information Network (JRCIN) indicated that more than 50 percent of all jobs in Japanese HE available for foreign instructors were terminal non-renewable contract positions of only five years (Klaphake, 2010). This inhibited Japan's ability to attract world-class talent from abroad and discouraged young foreign scholars from making a career in Japan due to the inherent job insecurity (Brotherhood, Hammond, & Kim, 2020). Furthermore, Klaphake (2010) states that only about 7 percent of tenured faculty members at top national universities in Japan are foreign. The ratio is low when compared to other Asian universities such as the University of Hong Kong where foreigners comprise 50 percent of the tenured faculty. This highlights a reluctance on the part of Japanese HEIs to eliminate the two-tiered system of domestic and international faculty, which has traditionally discouraged integration of all faculty members in HE.

An investigation by Yonezawa (2011), of the internationalization situation in Japan found that the governmental push for HEIs to globalize has actually been focused on a select top-tier institutions and that, even at that level, internationalization was quite narrowly focused on attracting international students. An illustration of this dynamic is MEXT's G30, which includes 13 universities (Burgess et al. 2010) and the most recent TGUP launch in 2014, which included only 37 out of approximately 775 universities in Japan (MEXT, 2020). This group of Japanese universities were attempting to internationalize with the help of MEXT through these two projects. At the same time, however, private universities like Asia Central University (ACU) (a pseudonym for the private case study university in this thesis), have decided to internationalize without the help of those projects. This phenomenon will be further examined in Chapter 5.

The G30 initiative, was largely considered a disappointment by scholars from the moment it was conceived, from implementation, to a premature cancellation. (Hollenback, 2019). These failures represented not only the program's inability to meet its objectives, but also MEXT's broader failure to internationalise through policies implemented at universities. As a result, the G30 ended in March of 2014 and was relaunched as the TGUP in April of the same year.

## 2.6 Japanese University (daigaku) in Brief

Japanese universities are categorized into three groups: National, Public, and Private. National universities (*kokuritsu daigaku)* consist of 86 of the most prestigious institutions in the country; for example, Tokyo, Kyoto and Osaka Universities (Eades, 2016; MEXT, 2020). They are funded and overseen by the Japanese central government (Hale & Wadden, 2019). These HEIs are the descendants of the Imperial Colleges established during the Meiji Period (1868-

1912). There are 93 Public universities (*kouritsu daigaku*) which are administered by prefectural and municipal Governments and are considered a step below National universities in terms of reputation and prestige. Private universities (*shiritsu daigaku*) are more numerous than national and public universities combined, consisting of over 600 institutions (MEXT, 2020). Their quality and reputations vary broadly (Hale & Wadden, 2019) from famous institutions like Waseda and Keio universities, to the smallest and newest universities like Fukuchiyama university established in 2016. Private universities receive limited government funding and are therefore dependent on tuition as their primary source of revenue. Asian Central University (ACU), the site for this study, is a private institution.

According to Cummings (2015), there are several features of the Japanese university system. Starting with the national universities, they were established by the central government to train civil servants and to master modern science and technology. Cummings further mentions how Japanese professors tend to stay at one institution over the course of their entire career, often starting with their undergraduate study. The author comments that promotions are often only extended to the graduates of the respective institutions creating lifelong educators at one institution. The hierarchical structure of the Japanese university organization is more important in terms of ideology *(tatemae)* than actual practice (*honne),* and this varies from institution to institution (Poole, 2005). This phenomenon is explored in Brotherhood, Hammond and Kim's, (2020), study of junior international faculty in Japan, where the authors found that these closed systems contributed to the "persistent barriers to reform in Japanese universities despite decades of state-sponsored internationalization" (p. 497). In addition, relatively few senior Japanese faculty have doctoral degrees, so they are reluctant to award such degrees to their lower ranking and younger colleagues (Cummings, 2015). As a result, many foreign and domestic faculty work

at Japanese universities with Master's degrees even though most university job advertisements indicate a requirement of a PhD or equivalent. In addition, hiring committees often select candidates without terminal degrees for several reasons; including, a lack of qualified applicants, time restrictions on the hiring process, and, in the case of foreign hires, candidates with visas that allow them to be employed in Japan (Appleby, 2014; 2016).

Universities '*daigaku*' in Japan differ greatly from their western counterparts. Although there are similarities, Poole, (2005) comments that in Japan, there are unique characteristics such as long-standing Japanese entrance exams. These are not common in western culture which does not place the same emphasis on high-stakes testing. In Japan, many students attend a *Juku* (preparatory school) for several years in order to prepare for these entrance exams. According to Cummings, (2015) freshman students in Japan believe that since they have worked hard to gain entrance to HEIs, so they feel that once accepted into university, it is a time to relax and develop new friendships; there is not a major emphasis on education. Further, especially in the first and second year, attendance is not mandatory and there are few assignments or homework responsibilities and many chances given to make-up missed courses (Cummings, 2015).

Another aspect of Japanese universities is the ratio of international and foreign faculty to domestic faculty. At HEIs in Japan, non-Japanese faculty comprise 4 percent of all faculty (Huang, 2009; Yonezawa, Ishida, & Horta, 2013). This is significantly lower than Oxford University in the UK, where 40 percent of the faculty is foreign-born (Goodman, 2016). Also, Bothwell (2019) reported that more than a third of Japan's international faculty believe that the country's academic market is closed to foreigners, and half of them think universities are only interested in hiring them to boost their international rankings. The fact that foreign faculty are

often kept separate from Japanese faculty and treated differently, feel that they are there only used for internationalization purposes and with questionable working conditions like terminal contracts, it can be understood why foreigners may be unwilling to work at HEIs in Japan. Mock, Kawanmura, & Naganuma (2016), agree and posit that Japanese culture acts as a boundary of non-inclusion in Japanese academic culture, and many Japanese workplace norms, like those listed above, make life difficult for non-Japanese faculty in HEIs in Japan.

For those who wish to pursue a career in Japanese HEI, the most commonly used tool is the Japan Research Career Information Network (JREC) website. Many university teaching positions require native or native-like English ability and citizenship from Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the UK or the US. Domestic faculty are, therefore, unable to apply to these positions so it is clear that HEIs in Japan require non-Japanese faculty to fill this gap. The tension created by this dichotomy merits further investigation.

### 2.7 English as a Lingua Franca

English has become the de facto second language of many Asian countries including China, Hong Kong, South Korean and Japan (Bolton, 2008; Kirkpatrick, 2020). In academia, many international conferences are held in English, the world's top academic journals are published in English and academics from non-English speaking countries promote themselves through publications in English language journals (Bocanegra-Valle, 2014; Hyland, 2016). English is the global language (Crystal, 2010; Melitz, 2018), the most commonly used language in the world (Jeon & Lee, 2006), and the lingua franca of international business, technology, science and higher education (Jenkins, 2011). This means that there are also many kinds and versions of English around the world. This raises the question as to the wisdom of focusing on

one form or group of English and valuing a native speaker model of English over other Englishes (Leyi, 2020).

The global spread of English and the increasing use of English around the world (for example, the World Wide Web) serves as a medium that facilitates the free cross-border flows of products, ideas and workers. All of this defines our global world. Therefore, English as a lingua franca (ELF) involves two central domains: the linguistic and the societal. ELF needs to address the notion of community (Jenkins, Baker, & Dewey, 2018). Communities of practice (CoP) is a group of people who commonly interact with each other to share a mutual repertoire in order to accomplish a common task (Ehrenreich, 2018; Wenger, 1998). In the process, formal/informal learning takes place (Wenger, 1998). ELF along with CoP have shown the potential to indicate a social language in a specific community by comparing and contrasting the shared repertoires of different CoPs either within the same organization or institution settings or environment (Ehrenreich, 2018). However, English has become a formidable 'gatekeeper'. These are unseen ways in which English needs to be comprehended in the context of other languages, as a language always in translation (Pennycook, 2008).

The ability to communicate in English in parts of Asia is a status symbol. China has adopted English as their global language (Pan & Block, 2011). The debate is whether English in China is a World English or English is used as a lingua franca (see Fang, 2017) and the use of English as the medium of instruction in China's education (Fang, 2018). In countries where English is not widely spoken, there is a sense, according to Appleby (2016), of prestige placed on English ability that may be valued as a sign of social, cultural and economic status. Moreover, Appleby (2013) found that being a white, western English teacher led to status amongst students studying English as a foreign language. English is the lingua franca in the classroom (Jenkins,

2012) and English is the lingua franca at international universities (Jenkins, 2011). Therefore, English has become the lingua franca among HEIs in Asia.

In Japan, social capital is provided to those of Western pretence who enjoy the benefits of association of an acknowledged group (Swartz, 2012). Meaningfully, Bourdieu (1986) recognises that social capital, which includes cultural capital like the positive and envied cultural traits of a specific group, can result in cases where members of an identifiable group are "sought after" (p. 248). Kubota (2002) states that "foreign language is … interpreted as English' (p.20). She also identified a 'coolness' factor to English after interviewing 30 Japanese adults (Kubota, 2015 p. 66). English ability is valued in life, education, and work in Japan. Japanese people who communicate well in English are deemed elite and seen as sophisticated and international. English is indeed the foreign language in Japan.

The spread of ELT in Japan is possibly the single most important change that has occurred within Japan's HE system in the last twenty years (Yamagami & Tollefson, 2011). As in most countries where English is not an official language, the rationale for the increased use of English in the education system is due to its use in the fields of science, technology, and finance. Therefore, the ability to use the English language has become essential to remaining competitive in the global economy (Crystal, 2010). As Oda, (2019) and Yamagami and Tollefson (2011) suggest, the English language, whether spoken or taught in Japan, brings with it several challenges; MEXT's policies for English language integration into the education system as well as its use in terms of pedagogy, type of instructors, and the pressure to internationalize from HEIs themselves.

Kubota (2002) states that English is the foreign language in Japan. MEXT through the G30 and the current TGUP, are promoting English course offerings at 37 selected universities.

These include the top three public universities, (Tokyo, Kyoto, and Osaka), as well as private universities like Keio and Waseda. There is enormous competition to enter these universities each year, and English ability is necessary to pass the entrance exams. Moreover, many HEIs require undergraduate students to take courses with English as the medium of instruction.

Additionally, there is disagreement and even conflict between the various stakeholders about Japanese language and English Language Teaching (ELT) teaching policies, and how to better integrate English into Japan's education system through MEXT's policies (Oda, 2019; Yamagami & Tollefson, 2011). For example, "Japanese with English Abilities" (MEXT, 2002) was a programme introduced to promote English at public schools while improving Japanese language education at the same time. Policy makers believe there is a direct relationship between English and Japanese language education since English is taught through the Japanese language. Furthermore, MEXT has formulated unorthodox strategic plans to promote English in the education system and to strengthen Japanese cultural identity simultaneously. This is based on the premise that Japanese do not speak Japanese or English adequately. This has resulted in a paradox for ELT in Japan. Japanese government documents generally characterize learning English as one of the skills required to benefit from internationalization, but internationalization is "often represented in government documents as a threat to the country's unity, its values and its security" (Yamagami & Tollefson, 2011, p. 16).

### 2.8 English as a Second Language and English as a Foreign Language (ESL and EFL)

It is important to identify that in the context of this study, the vast number of students in classes taught by *foreign* faculty are ethnic Japanese in homogenous Japanese classrooms. The environment is very much English as a foreign language (EFL) as opposed to English as a

Second Language (ESL). EFL is typically characterized where the students are not exposed to or required to use English outside of the classroom; they share the classroom with other Japanese students of similar age and would rather exchange information in their native language (Table 2.3). This differs significantly from ESL in countries like Canada, the US and the UK where the shared common language among students is English. There is generally more motivation on the part of ESL students since improved English skills can significantly enhance their lives. English classes in the Japanese university setting are often populated with students characterized as being reluctant to speak up and often appearing disinterested in the course content. These classes are the majority and are taught by *foreign* faculty. They differ significantly compared to those in the West, which are taught by *international* faculty as described in section 2.12 and 2.13.

**Table 2.3** ESL versus EFL Study (Krieger, 2005)

| | ESL | EFL |
|---|---|---|
| Student Motivation | Intrinsic motivation is high; content is important (need to be real) | Intrinsic motivation is low; content is less relevant (needs to be fun) |
| Class size | Small – 8-10 | Large – 30+ |
| Class makeup | Mixed cultures and languages (communicate in English) | Homogenous culture and language (communicate in local language) |
| Use of English in Class | Important as a baseline communication tool | Often mixed with the local language |
| Role of culture | Students benefit from/are motivated to learn authentic local cultural norms | Students already know their local culture and interest in English cultural norms is less powerful |
| Implementation | Learning can be immediately tried and tested outside of the classroom | Implementation of teaching points is limited to classroom time |
| Attendance | Based on availability | Mandatory |

HEIs have recently moved away from using the term ‘English’ in course titles, perhaps in an effort to enhance the image of the university. Course titles such as ‘Academic Skills,’

'Canadian History' and 'Western Culture' have become common although they closely resemble traditional English courses in terms of course content and assessment. With new names, universities are hoping to increase student numbers locally and from abroad, although there are concerns as to who benefits from such courses. Since these are likely to be beginner or intermediate English language courses, they would be of little benefit to international students already skilled in English. Additionally, the move away from using English in the title has also led to claims by foreign faculty that they are teaching content-based courses, which may help to enhance their resumes since these course titles may make them appear to be more than English language teachers. This thesis will seek to investigate some of those claims.

These faculty members could be seen to represent the backbone of university courses in English, which support MEXT goals; and it is possible that the longer they stay, the more valuable they can be to the institution.

## 2.9 The Role of English in Japan's Higher Education

The Japanese government has attempted to improve English language capacity in HE through various government programmes (Kudo & Hashimoto, 2011), which include the recruitment of international students and faculty (Alleles, 2015). However, the integration of this group into the domestic HE system is rather uncertain. In 2002, MEXT released "Developing a Strategic Plan to Cultivate Japanese with English Abilities." The strategy was to have universities offer more classes with English instruction, so when students graduate, they will have some English language skills when entering the job market. In 2003, the Japanese government announced a five-year plan to educate young Japanese to be able to use English for business purposes. This was adapted from an earlier proposal "English as an official language"

in 2000 (Hashimoto, 2009). Despite these efforts, many Japanese have a love-hate relationship with the English language, which has resulted in an antipathy toward it (McVeigh, 2004). The preparation for university entrance examinations that focus on the intricacies of English grammar is partly responsible for this antipathy. At the same time, many Japanese will declare their devotion to mastering the English language to contribute to the globalization of Japan and their personal internationalization. Like Japan, other Asian countries have been proactive in adopting English to help promote their national interests (Phan, 2013). However, the over-promotion of English can undermine local languages and advance the false idea that internationalisation means learning the English language, which is the case in Japan. One example is the Global 30 Project with its English-only university curriculum that aims to recruit international students and foreign faculty. This overuse of an English-only pedagogy in the domestic education environment has undertones of linguistic imperialism (Philippson, 2009, cited in Phan, 2013).

The English language has become a part of daily life in many Asian countries, including Japan (Murata & Jenkins, 2009). Furthermore, the influence of English on the local language is unprecedented compared with other languages. Murata and Jenkins (2009) state that the extensive use of English across the world has led to the creation of global Englishes, such as Singaporean English, Chinese English and Hong Kong English, among many others.

In Japan, Kubota (2002) refers to English as the only foreign language taught in the education system. A global language is a language that genuinely reaches global status and develops into a special role in every country. This is not the case in Japan yet. There are approximately two billion users of the English language in some form today if one uses Kachru's (1988) three concentric circles of English (inner, outer and expanding circles) (Kachru, 1996). English has become the lingua franca for many Asian countries, especially in the areas of

science, mathematics, and technology (Crystal, 2010). Furthermore, many nations have adopted English as their official language of education or have chosen to make English an official foreign language in schools. Japan has not officially acknowledged English as an official language, but it is used extensively in the Japanese education system. Even with this extensive use, foreign faculty members have not been fully integrated into the domestic education system, which is part of this thesis investigation.

### 2.10 English Medium Instruction

Macaro, Curle, Pun, An, and Dearden, (2018) have undertaken a systematic review of English medium instruction (EMI) in HE. An in-depth review of 83 studies in HE documents shows the growth of EMI globally. EMI is a relatively new area in higher education in non-English speaking counties. There are many educational settings in which 'content' is taught in a language other than the home language of the student. Courses are specifically designed for international students to a particular country. In North America, the phenomenon can be labelled as immersion, content-based learning or content-based language learning or content-based language education, which is beyond this thesis.

In Asia countries such as China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, South Korea and Japan, governments have been actively promoting the use of EMI in both public, national and private universities in their respective countries (Macaro et al. 2018). They have also been recruiting foreign faculty to teach these courses in HEIs (Wang & Lin, 2013).

The number of universities in Japan offering EMI has grown by more than 50 percent in the past decade: 305 universities, which is approximately 40 percent of the total number of universities that offers some form of EMI course (MEXT, 2017; MEXT, 2020); and universities

are expanding existing EMI offerings. Brown (2018) suggests, EMI has a dual role in Japan, serving both international and domestic students. For international students, degree programs and short-term programs for exchange and visiting students are important. The number of these international students at both the undergraduate and graduate levels continues to grow. For domestic students, EMI typically makes up their English component of their degree program, to supplement or complement their core classes in Japanese.

The two main MEXT initiatives that are driving EMI are the present Top Global University Project (TGUP) and the former project Global 30 (G30) (MEXT, 2014a; MEXT, 2009). The TGUP goal is to create a globally oriented university, to increase the role of foreign languages in HE, and to foster global human resources. Out of 778 universities, 37 are participants in TGUP and 13 universities were part of G30 (MEXT, 2014a; MEXT, 2009). Rose and McKinley (2018) analysed these initiatives and found that the three most common nodes were "faculty internationalization, global reputation and university ranking," (p. 122).

### 2.11 Faculty Types at Japanese Universities

Over the last 25 years, the diversity of positions held by foreign faculty at Japanese universities has changed due to a declining birth rate and ageing population; there are fewer Japanese university-aged students now (Yonezawa, 2020). Yet at the same time, the increase of international students has resulted in the expansion of course offerings and an increase in non-Japanese faculty (Wadden & Hale, 2019). Poole (2010) finds that the Japanese professoriate struggles to maintain the traditional culture of *daigaku* (university) against the trend of aligning with western university models in Japan. Poole further states Japanese faculty "seen to be divided into two contrasting categories, Weberian 'ideal types,' oriented either centripetally or

centrifugally vis-à-vis the social world of the institution as they struggle either to maintain tradition or attempt change" (Poole, 2010 p. xii). International and foreign faculty find themselves at times working amongst this dichotomy of domestic faculty while carrying out their academic endeavours.

Today Japanese universities generally categorize most faculty into two groups: full-time tenured (*sennin*), and part-time (*hijoukin)* (Wadden & Hale, 2019). Nagatomo (2016) differentiates Japanese university faculty into two groups: standard and nonstandard employment. Standard is similar to other Japanese corporations where employees traditionally receive lifetime employment, and social welfare benefits. For university faculty, this usually means tenure. Non-standard employment includes part-time, contract fulltime, limited-term, and non-tenure track positions. Poole (2010) further classifies the adjunct, part-time faculty into two groups. Those that have full-time positions at a university, but also teach part-time at another university and part-time faculty employed at several universities, which becomes equivalent of a full-time faculty teaching schedule. These part-time (*hijoukin)*, adjunct, non-standard type of university employment has been termed the 'ronin teacher' (Poole, 2010; Butler, 2019). Butler (2019) defines this as

> For centuries, samurai who had lost their lords – or who didn't want to serve a lord – wandered Japan freely with their swords for hire. Some of these free agent warriors did quite well for themselves. In the twentieth century, university lecturers followed in their path. Welcome to the ronin teacher. (p. 26)

Faculty at Japanese universities are generally classified as, professor (*kyouju*), associate professor (jun-kyouju), assistant professor (jokyou), full-time tenured (*sennin*), lecturer (*koushi*), contract-non-tenured track (*shokutaku, tokunin, joukin*), or part-time (*hijoukin*) (Wadden & Hale, 2019). Additional categories have appeared in the 2019-2020 academic year, for example, part-time permanent faculty, adjunct faculty tenured, and junior international faculty (Brotherhood,

Hammond, and Kim, 2019). These terms will also be used to describe the various employment positions of foreign faculty.

### 2.12 Defining International Faculty and Foreign Faculty

It is essential to define the terminology used in this thesis. Although the terms *foreign faculty* and *international faculty* are used interchangeably in much of the current literature, they will be used separately in this thesis. As mentioned earlier, there are two distinct groups of foreign instructors at most of the larger HEIs. There are foreign faculty members in high-level, visible positions in the institution who have been recruited from overseas, often from elite Western universities. The term *international faculty* will be used to describe these instructors, who hold positions of prestige in the university. The term *foreign faculty* will be used to describe native or near-native English-speaking faculty recruited and hired in Japan and who tend to be in less prestigious positions, but who make up the large proportion of staff who teach English courses.

Huang (2018a; 2018b) comments that the term foreign*,* or *gaijin* in Japanese, "is mostly [used] in a negative sense to refer to those [who] come [from] outside Japan." At the same time, the word "international (*kokusaika* in Japanese) is more used in a neutral way" (personal correspondence e-mail, January 6th, 2020). However, there is no such stigma attached to these titles in this thesis. Also, there are certainly faculty from other countries, such as France, who are also considered by the university to be foreign faculty, but their experiences are not the focus of this study. For the purpose of this study, native-English speaking faculty will be divided into foreign faculty and international faculty.

The importance of identifying these two groups of faculty is in recognizing their unique characteristics. International faculty are generally experts in their field, not in English language study, and are usually well-established and well-published in their fields. They expect and are expected to lecture in their first language (English) in their area of expertise. They expect assessment and grading to mirror that of their previous institution. They teach few classes, are expected to conduct research, and are often the focus of promotional campaigns undertaken by the institution.

### 2.13 International and Foreign Faculty in Japan

There are two typical paths for teachers deciding to work at one of Japan's universities. One is for career academics who are recruited from overseas institutions with very high reputations. The second, the focus for this study, is for those coming to live and work as language teachers on a one-year contract. They decide to stay longer and then end up teaching at a university as foreign faculty.

Foreign faculty often start in *Eikaiwa,* the for-profit English school system. Most large *Eikaiwa* recruit overseas and have an established hiring process, visa processing, arrival process, orientation, and training. After adjusting to life in Japan and gaining some teaching experience, they often find the high number of classes and comparatively low wages in *Eikaiwa* to be challenging and look for better opportunities. Experienced foreign teachers often move to dispatch teaching companies where they are assigned to various corporate classes or HEIs to teach English. The pay is generally higher and the schedule better, even for part-time workers, with longer holidays and more autonomy in their classes.

As referred to earlier, many universities use J-RAC to post job openings. The site lists hundreds of positions around the country with detailed information about qualifications, work requirements and salary. A cursory examination shows a range of non-teaching research positions, contract (non-tenure) teaching opportunities, and full-time, tenured positions. Salary and working conditions differ significantly among institutions, locations, and positions.

Full-time, non-tenured track English teaching positions often require eight to twelve classes per week in addition to administrative duties, such as committee work, exam proctoring, and meetings (Appendix J). The majority of classes are undergraduate English language courses, mainly in the social sciences. Non-tenured teaching positions usually carry one- to five-year terminal contracts that can be renewed upon mutual agreement for up to five years, but with no opportunity for tenure. Although there is more autonomy in planning the course curriculum, non-tenured positions have a reduced or no research budget, and strict guidelines on grading and assessment (Appendix H). Salaries and working conditions vary among contract positions, locations, and institutions, but time commitment outside of teaching hours is generally understood to be lower than that of tenured positions.

In terms of tenured positions, for non-Japanese, there are generally significantly more job responsibilities, and a much greater time commitment outside of teaching hours in comparison to HEIs in western countries. As an example, one university in central Japan requires native-English speaking tenured foreign faculty to participate in creating and invigilating the English component of the yearly entrance exam. During 2017, one such faculty was paid for 380 hours of committee work from May to September. Faculty members are excused from this committee only when their children are potential takers of the entrance exam or once over a five-year period (Chapman, personal correspondence). This time commitment is well-known locally and is

always a serious consideration among instructors considering applying to positions at that university.

### 2.14 Foreign Faculty in this Research

For this research, foreign faculty were classified under four main categories along with specific duties, responsibilities and perquisites: Tenured Foreign Faculty (TFF), Permanent Full-time Foreign Faculty (PFTFF), Temporary Full-Time Foreign Faculty (TFTFF), and Part-Time Foreign Faculty (PTFF). TFF are those foreign faculty that have tenure, serve on the *Kyojukai* (Tenured Professor Committee) and other committees, and have private or semi-private offices along with office hours. TFF are obligated to do research and publish their findings. They routinely teach six to eight classes per week, and help create and proctor entrance examinations. They receive full benefits including health care, social insurance, and pension contributions. Many also get a retirement package; however, they are often required to retire between the ages of 60 and 65 depending on the institution. Moreover, TTFs are generally assigned one research day per week, in which they are allowed to teach at another university with the permission of their employer.

Permanent Full-time Foreign Faculty (PFTFF) are similar to TFF. They may have a similar workloads and responsibilities as TFF, particularly PTTFF working at some smaller private universities, but PFTFF do not usually serve on the *Kyoujukai* (Tenured Professors Committee). Other differences from TFF may include an annual revolving contract that is guaranteed to age 60, as well as an additional teaching load, committee work, and publishing and research. Also, PFTFF may receive a smaller retirement package or no package at all.

Temporary Full-Time Foreign Faculty (TFTFF) include those foreign faculty on one-to five-year renewable and terminal contracts, with or without the possibility of tenure. It is common in Japanese HE for foreign faculty to be hired for these limited-term positions, and the fact that the contract is terminal is made very clear in the interview and in the subsequent contract (Appendix J). The positions vary greatly depending on the institution, particularly in terms of salary, which can change depending on age and geographic region. TFTFF teach between eight to twelve classes per week and are only required to do limited research. However, research is generally considered a key element necessary to move into a permanent full-time position. They have little or no committee work or supervisory responsibilities and are usually required to attend weekly department meetings and campus-wide faculty meetings once or twice a year.

Part-Time Foreign Faculty (PTFF) teach one or more *koma* (90-minute lesson) at one or more universities. PTFF in this study may also include faculty who are TFF, PFTFF, and TFTFF at other universities, and this phenomenon of full-time faculty teaching part-time at other universities is very common in this context. Most PTFF only teach; they are not required to do any research nor serve on committees. They are usually required to attend one faculty meeting per semester and perform minimal administrative work. PTFF are allowed access to a part-time teacher's room, receive no funding for research, and receive no or minimal professional development.

### 2.15 Casualisation and Deprofessionalisation

Academia in parts of the world like Australia have been increasingly recognised as a significant site of neoliberal flexibilization and managerial rationalisation. Here, non-tenured academics report under-renumeration and compromised quality; they experience persistent

income insecurity, and they find themselves voiceless in the workplace. (Brown, Goodman, & Yasukawa, 2010). This in part characterises workforce casualization.

Workforce casualization is the process in which employment shifts from a preponderance of full-time and permanent positions to casual and contract positions (Thompson, 2015). Casualization of academia leads to insecure, non-permanent contracts, ranging from short-term contracts to multi-year contracts with or without the possibility of tenure (Richardson, Wardale & Lord, 2019). Ivancheva (2020a) links casualization of academia to globalisation, along with the commercialisation of HE that is driven by the pursuit of world rankings.

Deprofessionalization refers to the shift from professional to nonprofessional status which include the loss of supposedly unique occupational qualities (Haug, 1973). Toren (1975) suggests that deprofessionalization stems from the knowledge base of some professions and is related to the ongoing processes of specialization. This is in opposition to professional performance that is susceptible to standardization and routinization. De Saxe, Bucknovitz, and Mahoney-Mosedale, (2020) suggest educators are deprofessionalized through privatization, education reform, and policies that reduce the profession to one consisting of being a technician who repeats and delivers routine material. Casualization and deprofessionalization will be examined from the non-domestic faculty point of view and their experiences to illustrate the current working conditions at HEIs.

There are some basic assumptions of the university faculty as a profession. These generally include or imply that one has extended education, scholarship in their area of research, professional ethics, social authority, and high academic productivity. These features would be reflected in one's professional curriculum vita that would include a terminal degree, a career path

of appointments and promotions within HEIs, and scholarly productivity including research and teaching (Arimoto, Cummings, Huang, & Shin, 2015).

A 2019 survey conducted by the University and College Union in the UK found that 70 percent of the 49,000 faculty respondents remain on fixed-term contracts, with many more living precariously on contracts which are nominally open-ended, but which have built in redundancy dates. In 2015, 53 percent of academics teaching or doing research at universities in the UK are employed on some form of non-permanent contract; for example, short-term contracts (as short as one semester/term) that pay per-class or per-hour basis to give classes and mark students' work (Chakrabortty & Weale, 2016). Richardson, Wardale, & Lord's (2019) study found that non-tenured faculty considered flexibility as a positive dimension of sessional work and this allowed them to combine other responsibilities, including working at different institutions and pursuing other personal interests. Yet at the same time, they were concerned with being typecast into only being able to lecture or teach in a narrow academic field. Nearly all participants voiced frustration at the lack of professional development and their institutions' expectation that it should be undertaken on their own time if it were available. From the above research, non-tenure, non-tenure-track, adjunct, contingent, part-time, and irregular faculty share similar struggles at their HEIs. These include no job security, low pay, few if any benefits, limited voice, increasing workload, and tenuous futures (Bramhall, 2014; Lynch and Ivancheva, 2015).

Many HEIs' growing reliance on casualized and deprofessionalized academics are being labeled as McUniverities (Nadolny & Ryan, 2015). Also, the term McEnglish is used to describe English language lessons at *Eikaiwa* and at some smaller, lower-ranked universities in Japan (Hooper, 2019; Hooper & Hashimoto, 2020). These two expressions have come to encompass the temporariness of workers, the lack of commitment on behalf of the employer, and the

repetitive work of HE. This research will examine if foreign faculty experience similar working conditions in their HEI.

Examining casualization and deprofessionalization of faculty requires exploring local labour law. This thesis will examine briefly Japan's Labour Contract Act. No. 128 of 2007 (Amended 2012) with a focus on three of its articles: Article 16 Chapter IV Fixed-Term Labour Contract; Article 17 section 1.2; and Article 18 section 1.2.2 Conversion of a Fixed-term Labour Contract to a Labour Contract Without a Fixed Term. These articles will be examined to see their effect on non-domestic faculty at universities.

Two terms used to categorize non-domestic faculty in Japan are 'Regular Employee' (tenured faculty) and 'Non-regular Employee' (non-tenured faculty) (Asao, 2011). A regular employee is an employee who is hired directly by the employer (the university) without a predetermined period of employment; this is open-ended, fulltime, direct employment. A non-regular employee is an employee who does not meet one of the conditions for regular employment. According to Asao (2011), there can be seven different combinations of employment patterns that qualify a worker as a non-regular employee, including (1) open-ended, full-time, indirect; (2) open-ended, part-time, direct; (3) open-ended, part-time, indirect; (4) fixed-term, full-time, direct; (5) fixed-term, full-time, indirect; (6) fixed-term, part-time, direct; and (7) fixed-term, part-time, indirect. As a result of these categories, HEIs have the ability to hire non-domestic faulty under a variety of predetermined conditions, which affect the faculty members' length of stay, their ability to contribute to the institution, and conduct collaborative research.

In addition, Japan is distinct when compared to its OECD counterparts for having a high proportion of part-time staff working relatively long hours. Firms (universities) have increasingly

rely on non-standard workers, such as contract, part-time and casual workers for their day-to-day operations (Gaston & Kishi, 2007). In recent years, new categories and conditions have emerged for part-time workers, which include fixed-term and open-ended - part-time, direct employment and entrusted employee; with relatively long fixed term (up to five years), possibility of full-time, and direct employment (Asao, 2011). This in turn has created new categories for non-tenured faculty at universities, part-time permanent and adjunct faculty permanent. As a result, it has become increasingly difficult to distinguish the job requirements and responsibilities of regular and non-regular workers, and full-time and part-time faculty, particularity in the foreign language and general education departments at HEIs. This research will examine how these recent changes affect non-domestic faculty in terms of length of stay, their ability to contribute to the institution in meaningful ways, and to participate in collaboration research.

### 2.16 Definition of and Introduction to Integration

Integration is a chaotic concept used to refer to everything from institution access to structural assimilation to feeling at home (Blunt, 2018). Robinson (1998) suggests that integration is a vague concept: a word used by many, but understood differently by most, which depends on the context, environment and individual situation. Ager and Strang (2008) explain that the concept of integration has various meanings. Based on their review of the literature, the central elements are “achievement and access across the sectors of employment,” “social connection between groups within the community,” and “structural barriers related to language, culture and local environment” (p. 166).

According to Heckmann (2006), integration as a concept may be reconstructed and described as the equilibrium among interconnected relationships within a system-like entity that

has specified boundaries to its environment; this refers to a state of integration within an integrated system. In addition, Spencer and Charsley (2016) explore integration as not as a single process but as something that takes place through a number of dimensions Although categorized somewhat differently by scholars, they are primarily social (social interaction, relationships); cultural (changing beliefs, perceptions, attitudes, habits and lifestyles); public and political involvement (in community life and in the democratic process); and in relation to identity (the processes through which individuals develop at some level a shared identity and sense of belonging with the place, nation, communities and people among whom they live).

Academia has long debated the meaning of integration, and although there is no agreement on what constitutes successful integration, certain components can be identified in the research literature. These components include the ability to develop social capital, a two-way process between the newcomer and established community, and integration's multidimensional and multifaceted nature (Phillimore, 2012). Furthermore, integration encompasses the incoming migrants' culture and the communities' pre-existing mainstream, and both are subject to change and reform as part of the shared integrative process. Therefore, integration implies a mutual process of adaptation in which incoming actors, natives, and the context that houses them are all subject to change (Brotherhood, Hammond, & Kim, 2020).

Therefore, the definition of integration for this thesis will be: a two-way framework of shared cooperation between foreign and domestics actors with the ability to change the local academic environment. This includes features of equal access to employment opportunities, and the ability to create social connections within and between groups within a given institution and community; without consequences or judgements related to language, culture, and the local

environment (Ager & Strang, 2008; Blunt,2018; Chang, 2007; Heckmann, 2006; Pettigrew, 1998; Spencer & Charsley, 2016).

## 2.17 Summary

The context assessment in this chapter situates it within the research field that covers internationalization's impact on Japan's higher education and the potential integration of foreign faculty. This research will further examine the connection between the need for non-Japanese faculty to aid in Japan's university's internationalization and the over-reliance on English as the tool for implementation. Most researchers underline the difficulty in establishing an exact mechanism to integrate non-Japanese faculty into the domestic university to help it internationalize further. In response to this challenge, this research examines the plan that universities and foreign faculty have for their long-term stay and what infrastructure is established or needs to be established to facilitate integration. In addition, this research addresses professional concerns by engaging in relevant conversations with practitioners that thus far have had a limited voice. The next chapter will examine the current literature which aided in developing the research questions and design.

# Chapter 3: Review of the Literature

## 3.0 Introduction

The approach used to review the literature starts this section. Second, there is an overview of the integration of international faculty into a domestic environment in higher education institutions. This part also includes a discussion of the specifics of integration in the Japanese context, as well as aspects that affect foreign faculty integration in Japan. Japan's university system is also investigated, including intercultural factors and customs and their impact on foreign faculty. The review then critiques several theoretical frameworks and their rationale for inclusion or exclusion in this research. The chapter closes by identifying gaps in the literature and current knowledge that led to the research questions for this thesis.

## 3.1 Approach Used to Review the Literature

A variety of literature from Asia, Australasia, Europe and North America has been reviewed. The literature includes a variety of sources, such as HE policy documents, published monographs and peer-reviewed journals. The review is inclusive of research designs and methodologies in order to inform decisions regarding the research design for this thesis. Differences between international perspectives and those specific to the study of Japan were noted, particularly in relation to foreign faculty integration. Key search words used included International faculty, Foreign faculty, Non-domestic faculty, Internationalization, Higher education, Policy, Employment, Incorporation, and Integration. Several databases and search engines were used, such as ERIC, Web of Science, JSTRO, Sage Journals Online, and Taylor and Francis.

### 3.2 Integration

Several studies have put international academics at the forefront of the internationalization of higher education (Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbley, 2010; Altbach & Yudkevich, 2017a; Wu & Huang, 2018). More recently, the presence of international faculty members on campuses as well as the institutions' commitment to world-class research and teaching have been the focus of marketing campaigns, which has resulted in an increased need for academics and cross-border mobility of academics from around the world (Altbach & Yudlevich, 2017a). The way these foreign faculty members are being integrated into Japanese HEIs is the focus of this study.

Given the international faculty's perceived importance, current research suggests that they are struggling to successfully integrate into their organizations and attain the position of a reform agent (Mihut, de Gayardon, & Rudt, 2017). Pherali (2012) suggests that persistent cultural disconnects between international faculty and the local academic community impair the international faculty's ability to fulfil daily obligations and take advantage of career opportunities, such as being granted tenure. According to Siekkinen, Kuoppala, K., Pekkola, E., & Välimaa, J. (2017), international faculty are often relegated to lower-ranked positions in university hierarchies. These precarious working arrangements were found in low-prestige institutions, where fixed-term employment tends to prevent institutional cohesion from developing. Such problems can be compounded in societies like Japan, where hierarchies are deeply entrenched (Shin, 2015)

### 3.3 Keys to Successful International Faculty Integration

Barbaric and Jones (2017) report that International Faculty Members (IFM) at the University of Toronto (U of T), a top-ranked Canadian university, felt that they were somewhat

or fully integrated into their departments, but not the institution. In addition, these faculty members specified that the smaller the department, the easier it was to integrate. Moreover, senior administrators and international faculty felt that there was no tension between Canadian and non-Canadian faculty members partly because promotion, tenure, and integration at the university are the same for domestic and international faculty. The mere idea of different treatment based on one's citizenship or birthplace was treated as an oddity.

At Vilnius University (VU) in Lithuania, IFM regarded themselves as well integrated into the university (Rose & Leisyte, 2017). They attribute this to (1) low numbers of international faculty in each department; (2) the ability of IFM to have professional and personal interaction with colleagues within their own departments; and (3) the integration of IFM on decision-making bodies, such as the university senate. The major barriers to integration at VU were IFM's lack of proficiency in the local language and cultural differences within the department and institution.

At Ariel University (AU), Israel's largest public university, IFM account for 37percent of the faculty (Bokek-Cohen & Davidovich, 2010). This successful integration of IFM was attributed to three main factors. First, there is supply and demand; the demand for the expertise that these IFM have in their field due to the limited number of domestic faculty with similar expertise. Second, there is a supportive social network. IFM live in dense immigrant communities, which aids in social and emotional support. IFM also, live with their core family members. The last factor is motivation. The study found that most IFM are immigrants with full citizenship, and most do not wish to return to their country of birth. Hence, there is a reason to build their academic careers in Israel.

Chinese universities have been recruiting IFM for the past few decades (Kim, 2015), and IFM play a key role in bridging Chinese universities to the international academic community

(Wu & Huang, 2018). The study also revealed that many of the IFM had a fondness for the Chinese lifestyle and culture; however, they faced obstacles because of their gender, language challenges, and prior academic experience, which was not compatible with local requirements.

A study in Korea (Froese, Peltokorpi, and Ko, 2012) examined the impact of integration based on the proficiency in the local language of foreign English-language teachers at universities, elementary and middle schools, and private language institutions. The authors put forth that the onus is on the foreign teacher to adjust to the local community and culture. The most essential factor in integration is proficiency in the host language and the individual's ability to adjust to local conditions that may be unfamiliar to them.

### 3.4 Factors Affecting a Smooth Integration

Now, with a better understanding of the factor required for IFM to integrate into life in a foreign setting successfully, one can examine some of the unique challenges of living and working in Japan.

#### A.) Confusion in purpose/role

Although the presence of international faculty has increased, their participation at Japanese universities remains ambiguous (Brotherhood et al. 2020; Brown, 2018; Huang, 2017; 2018a; 2018b; Huang, Daizen, & Kim, 2019; Kubota, 2002; Kubota & McKay, 2009; Seargent, 2009; Shin, 2015; Yonezawa, Ishida, & Horta, 2013; and Whitsed, 2011). Foreign faulty in Japan are components in the internationalization of Japanese HEIs, but their integration into the local HE system is in doubt and in uncertain (Yonezawa, Akiba, & Hirouchi, 2009; Yonezawa & Shimmi, 2015).

Huang's et al.(2019) analysis of the 2017 national survey of full-time foreign faulty at Japanese universities illustrates that Japanese faculty are indifferent to their presence; they feel

they are viewed as temporary visitors. Brotherhood et al. (2020) interviewed 23 foreign faulty at Japanese universities in order to assess their experiences of integration, assimilation, and marginalization at Japanese universities. Their findings suggest that native Japanese actors were tacitly trying to internationalize but overwhelmingly reluctant to allow foreign faulty to be the drivers of this reform process. Respondents reported that they believed that their recruitment was only a symbolic gesture. Their role was less a symbol of internationalization and more a marketing tool for the university.

**B.) Differing expectations: The role of the teacher in HEI**

According to McVeigh (2002), teaching at universities in Japan is "kindergarten for adults" where "very little teaching and very little study goes on" (p. 4), so "Japan's universities taken together are a national-wide educational failure". McVeigh's criticism is based on his life as an English teacher at various schools over an eight-year period. The perspective lacks depth and is somewhat biased since he interprets Japanese HE through western cultural norms. His point of view does not allow for variation within HE and different kinds of HEIs. Moreover, McVeigh indirectly suggests that IFM are outsiders and are only allowed access to certain aspects of Japanese HE when they are specifically needed to perform a task. However, much of McVeigh's criticisms are echoed in anecdotal evidence from foreign faculty from around the country.

**C.) Long-term job security**

As mentioned in Chapter 2, most foreign faculty receive short-term contracts, and this means it is difficult to make a long-term commitment to a city and university. It is challenging to settle permanently and fully integrate into the community when one's job is required to change in five years, which is typical for many teaching positions at Japanese universities. Teichler

(2019) agrees with this descriptions and believes that foreign faulty and their institutions would benefit from long-term employment with tenured track opportunities. Foreign faulty would be more productive than 'grey' academic labour where non-tenured positions and junior academics are employed on short-term, part-time non-renewable contracts.

**D.) Difficulty of being informed**

Hashimoto (2009) points out that there are problems and contradictions in government policy. He states that this is especially apparent in the official Japanese and English versions of governmental policy since the translations do not match. Available Japanese government policy and documentation in English reflects such rhetoric, and there are often significant gaps in English translations compared to the original Japanese versions (Bouchard, 2013; Hashimoto, 2009; Otomo, 2016). Hashimoto (2009) explains that these translations are often difficult for native speakers of English to understand because of awkward wording and the use of *katakana* English which is English vocabulary that has been adapted into the Japanese discourse with a different meaning and usage. Specifically, the problem is that foreign faculty with no Japanese ability do not have access to a full and correct copy of HEI policies in a language other than Japanese.

**E.) Always on the outside**

Whitsed (2011) research grounded in Lebra's (2004) work explains that the concept of *soto* (outer) and *uchi* (inner) are necessary to understand the relationship between foreign faculty and HEIs; foreigners are always considered as being outsiders. Furthermore, as De Mente (2003) suggests, *shikata* (the way of doing something) and *kata* (form) can be very difficult to master for non-Japanese, and this lack of cultural understanding can make non-Japanese feel

further estranged from the culture. In Japanese society, there is only one way to perform a task, such as a daily routine, an annual custom, or a once-in-a-lifetime event. De Mente (2003) suggests that it is important to understand how and why Japanese act in different contexts. *Kata,* by itself, is the understanding that the *form* by which something is done is just as important as how it is done; a philosophy which can be hard to assimilate for non-Japanese. In Japanese culture, "there is hardly an area of Japanese thought or behaviour that is not directly influenced by one or more 'kata'" (De Mente, 2002, p.1). These characteristics are part of everyday life in Japan and can be very difficult to integrate into the life of someone not born into the culture.

The literature review highlights that one of the most critical factors in successfully integrating into a culture is the ability of the outsider to adjust to local conditions. However, that challenge can be very difficult given the unique characteristics of life in Japan, the Japanese culture and the Japanese higher education classroom.

### 3.5 Identifying the Appropriate Theoretical Frameworks

Three theoretical frameworks were considered for the context of this thesis: communities of practice (CoP), contact theory (CT) and grounded theory (GT). CoP is appealing to the research since it examines collections of people who regularly interact with each other in order to accomplish a common task. Given the significance of examining the lived lives of the participates, CoP examines how groups engage together to share ideas in a particular domain. CT's importance is the suggestion that positive effects within a group may occur, which are characterized by equal status, intergroup cooperation, and support by social and institutional

authorities. Also, CT allows for the exploration of negative intergroup contact alongside positive contact to examine personal bias variables.

Grounded theory recommends avoiding carrying out a literature review before the research is conducted, however in recent years, researchers have included literature reviews in their analysis for the advancement of grounded theory (Charmaz, 2014, p. 306). Since the researcher had read extensively before deciding to pursue this research subject, it would be disingenuous to claim that the researcher had not done a review of the literature. Grounded theory's continuous comparative approach offers a systematic analysis of qualitative data as the data is obtained by detailed interviews (Charmaz, 2014). Grounded theory aims at generating a theory by gathering and evaluating evidence from people expressing a common interest in a specific context (Charmaz, 2014). The researcher was not confident in developing a theory because this was the researcher's first significant investigative endeavour of this magnitude. These are not the only theories that play a role in this thesis but are the most relevant, essential and meaningful ones to the researcher

### 3.6 Communities of Practice and Integration

There needs to be a concept of community that articulates a place with practice to explore in detail how the integration of individuals takes place in groups within the community to examine their interconnections. Therefore, this thesis adopts Lave and Wenger's (1991) notion of the community of practice (CoP). The concept of CoP has evolved over the years (Borzillo, Aznar & Schmitt, 2011; Brown & Duguid, 2000; Eckert & McConnell-Ginet,1992; Lave & Wenger, 1991, Wenger, 1998; Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder, 2002; Wenger-Traynor & Wenger-Traynor, 2015).

CoP has the potential to examine the dynamic within Japan's HEIs, where foreign faculty are in a collective social and professional environment with other foreign faculty, domestic faculty and administrative staff. Moreover, CoP has evolved to apply to both individuals and groups of individuals. It has also been developed as a managerial tool to improve a given organization's competitiveness (Li, Grimshaw, Nielsen, Judd, Coyte, & Graham, 2009; Wenger, 1998; Wenger, et al., 2002), thereby allowing an organization to foster innovative and creative problem-solving through CoP. The organization does not impose rules or an agenda but allows the members of the CoP to learn from each other and resolve issues (Wenger et al., 2002). CoP is "formed by people who engage in a process of collective learning in a shared domain of human endeavour; are groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly" (Wenger, 2006, p.1). They also consist of groups of people who share a concern, a set of problems, or a passion about a particular topic, and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis (Wenger et al., 2002). These aspects of CoP fit into the professional and social lives of foreign faculty who work in Japanese HE and help reveal the complexity of this group.

Borzillo et al. (2011) have identified a 5-phase integration process (awareness, allocation, accountability, architectural, and advertising) in their research into CoP. This is an ongoing process in CoPs, whereby newcomers join, and long-term members may choose to end their participation or move to a different group. This may explain the situation where foreign faculty move from one institution to another before finding one that becomes a permanent assignment. In other words, they have been granted tenure (or an indefinite contract in the Japanese context) and become part of the group/organization.

There are several examples where CoP has assisted in the integration of foreign faculty into domestic HEIs (Bloomgarden & O'Merara, 2007; Deters, 2006; Jawitz, 2009). These studies have explored the local factors impacting on foreign faculty and domestic institutional culture, academic discourse, hiring and retention practices, pedagogical differences, alongside the need for all stakeholders to work together. In addition, community awareness and community acceptance were a part of the integration process (Deters, 2006; Gahungu, 2011; Munene, 2014; Niyubahwe, Mukamurera, & Jutras, 2013).

Lave and Wenger's (1991) early conceptualization of CoP centred on the interaction of expert and novice. More recently, Wenger-Traynor and Wenger-Traynor (2015) define CoP as a group that engages and shares ideas to encourage their development and progress in a specific field of mutual interest. When discussing their area of interest, community members discuss experiential fields and create a common knowledge base as a consequence of engagement. They build a shared knowledge base upon which all members can draw. Moreover, CoP has developed to provide a template for examining the learning that transpires among employees in a given social environment (Li et al., 2009). For this thesis, CoP will be defined as a group of individuals who come together in an effort through reciprocal participation. In this collective endeavour, ways of doing something, styles of communicating, beliefs, ideals, power structures, behaviours appear. As a social framework, a CoP is distinct from the social group, principally because it is characterized both by its membership and by the activity in which the membership is engaged (Eckert & McConnell-Ginet,1992).

Furthermore, Brown and Duguid (2000) argue that to understand the way information is constructed within an organization, it is necessary to understand the different communities that are formed within it and the distribution of power within them. Reorganization is necessary to

accommodate new learning and innovation in the workplace. Therefore, CoP must be extended from an individual community to an overarching organizational architecture that results in a community of communities or possibly "communities within communities" in Japan's HE context (Brown & Duguid, 2000). As such, HE stakeholders need to extend CoP from individual groups to one organizational group, such as all foreign faculty inclusive of being tenured or non-tenured as one CoP group as opposed to individual CoP groups.

### 3.7 Contact Theory

Social scientists began to theorize about intergroup contact in the late 1940s (Pettigrew, 1998). In 1954, Allport's hypothesis proved influential by specifying conditions for intergroup contact to reduce prejudice. According to Pettigrew, (1975) and Everett (2013), contact theory (CT) has been useful in applied settings, such as in the distinction between racial desegregation and integration in schools, and specific communities.

Allport (1954) proposes that intergroup CT meaning face-to-face interactions between individuals of opposing groups can contribute to more cohesive intergroup relationship and identify a collection of optimal conditions to accelerate this beneficial result – intimacy, equal status, common goals, and institutional support. Novak and Rogan (2010) believe that such attitudes "can become more positive after direct interpersonal contact with members of the outgroup [minority group]" (p. 32). Allport (1954) held that four key conditions were necessary for CT to have positive effects on the minority group, "equal status within the situation; common goals; intergroup cooperation; and the support of authorities, law, or custom" (cited in Pettigrew 1998, p. 66).

Pettigrew (1998) states that several studies reported positive contact effects, even in situations lacking ideal conditions. CT highlights the progress along with categorizing the positive impact of two distinct forms of contact; direct and indirect (Hewstone & Swart, 2011). CT brings members of different groups together in "face-to-face" encounters in order to reduce prejudice and where indirect contact involves knowing about or observing at least one, and preferably more than one, member of the other group (Hewstone & Swart, 2011).

The theoretical literature does not consistently support Allport's CT hypothesis. Limits to CT theory are related to variables chosen for analysis; the empirical research often exposes gaps in the arguments highlighted in Dixon, Durrheim and Tredoux's (2005) critique. Research shows that the word 'contact' is used increasingly as a synonym for positive contact friendship between groups (Barlow, Paolini, Pedersen, Hornsey, Radke, Harwood, Rubin, & Sibley, 2012). This omits a critical communication dimension: that intergroup interaction has the potential to be negative.

Bertrand and Duflo's (2017) field experiments on discrimination found that self-selection can partially explain the associations between intergroup interaction and non-prejudiced behaviour; individuals with fewer biases pursue interaction. Comparatively, there are few monitored intergroup interaction longitudinal studies. Of those that exist, none assess bias outcomes more than one day after exposure, and this has created a deficit in the literature. Neither of these studies tests the elimination of ethnic discrimination among participants older than 25 years.

Paolini et al. (2010) showed that intergroup contact might have more detrimental effects on bias than beneficial ones. CT helps the outgroup members to assert more

dominance to the intergroup, specifically at gatherings; a negative contact hypothesis. Recent evidence shows that while negative intergroup interaction is more prevalent than positive intergroup communication, intergroup contact in real life is often less frequent than positive contact. This study indicates that previous encounters with members of the outgroup community influence communication: individuals who have had functional interactions with members of the outgroup in the past display a narrower difference between the impact of positive and negative contact.

Moreover, Paolini's et al. (2010) study on negative intergroup contact with a group of Australian and American adults find that the lack of nonverbal immediacy and participants' lack of positive emotion for the other contributes to increases in positive and negative disclosure and disdain for the other. Arkoudis and Tran (2010) studied lecturers with a minimum of 13 years of teaching experience in supporting international students in academic writing. They find that lecturers position themselves as knowledgeable of their international students' needs; however, they struggle with how to assist them with their studies.

Wang, Huang, Stathi, and Vezzali (2020) study on majority and minority group members in China and investigates whether the association of positive and negative contact had a bearing on their behaviour towards each other. One finding is that positive contact is associated among members with a competitively motivated desire for group superiority. Another recent study using CT (Smith, Philpot, Gerdin, Schenker, Linnér, Larsson, Mordal Moen, and Westlie, 2020) examines inclusion, culturally inclusive practices and teacher/student relationships while examining social cohesion. In this study, thematic analysis is used to analyse the data. The findings highlight how participants provided opportunities to work in heterogeneous groups, solve problems in mixed group settings, and develop practices in culturally responsive ways.

These studies will provide a structure on examining various groups that may exist in the foreign faculty community and any dominant characteristics that may be revealed. They will also help to see if any culturally inclusive practices are present at the faculty or institutional level.

Allport's (1954) principle concept notes that direct interaction is one way of minimizing prejudice between majority and minority communities under suitable circumstances. When one has the ability to interact with others, they can consider and respect the diverse perspectives that include their way of life. Their bias will decrease as a consequence of newly gained knowledge and understanding. Issues of stereotyping, prejudice, and bigotry between rival communities typically diminish. Allport 's proposes that properly managed group contact should reduce those issues and lead to better interactions. However, Dijker (1987) finds that CT in a natural setting can either be negative or positive. Christ, Ullrich, and Wagner (2008) explain that CT in unstructured, unsupervised settings, the actual and anticipated contact from participants is far from being present in the environment being observed. Also, Everett (2013) states that the unforeseen consequence of CT is the loss of the minority communities' ability to partake in concerted action to eliminate inequality within communities. Positive interaction can often have an adverse impact on assuming discrimination by manipulating the leaders of the deprived group's leaders, thereby keeping the status differentials unchanged.

CT will examine the positive and negative effects on majority and minority group members while examining how intergroup contact is taking place between various communities such as foreign faculty, domestic faculty, and administration staff, both tenured and non-tenured. CT will allow the researcher to consider the perspective of different groups at ACU and to explore how they interpret their contact with other groups.

### 3.8 Gaps in Knowledge and Research Focus

This analysis of the literature found several places where little to no work explicitly fits the particular background of this thesis. It is both a benefit and a disadvantage; there is a shortage of literature to advise every phase of the design and implementation of the research, but the thesis itself hopes to overcome some of these limitations and address these gaps.

Regarding general principles, such as CoP, mixed methods and case study, there is a wealth of information from Japan that helps frame the context, but it is limited in scope, primarily due to the fact that there are far more contributions from outside Japan on these topics. The literature review helped the researcher establish a broader viewpoint and to include an analysis of the strengths and shortcomings of the Western-based interpretation of the findings of this thesis. The fundamental issues of this study, including its interpretation of the position of international scholars, are commonly discussed, and they often form the foundation of related research studies in Japan. However, it is important, to be transparent in the way and to the extent that certain theories have been used to inform this research. When research on a particular topic related to Japan could not be found, research on that theme in other Asian countries like China and South Korea were examined since those countries share similar cultural background with Japan. Such viewpoints influenced the research in the broader context, and every attempt was made to recognize parallels and disparities, with sufficient limitations, and to include this literature from beyond Japan.

It is important to note that CoP and CT are not used as separate lenses and recognizing the social aspects of integration will play a key role. CoP will play a role in the fundamental design of this thesis. A description of how decisions were made concerning the use of such analytical lenses will be addressed in the following chapter, particularly in laying out the

methodology (Chapter 4) and in discussing the findings (Chapter 5). The choice of these theories and how effective they have been in guiding this thesis will also be examined in (Chapter 4).

A review of the literature for this thesis uncovered gaps in current knowledge with respect to the lack of effective integration of non-Japanese faculty into Japanese HEI. In addition, no literature explicitly investigates the effect of non-tenured, part-time foreign faculty regarding their impact on Japanese universities' internationalization and their motivation to extend their stay in Japan. This thesis will also investigate the participants' view of their university experience, qualifications necessary to enter university teaching and institutional policies regarding their employment, which is also another area representing a gap in current literature.

### 3.9 Conclusion and Research Questions

A review of the literature identified gaps related to the integration of foreign faculty at Japanese universities, which is important given the recent governmental initiatives mandating efforts to internationalize Japanese HEIs. No literature was found in this area in the context of Japan, and little was found internationally. One international example, Froese, Peltokorpi, and Ko's, (2012) examination of integration of foreign teachers, has the potential to be used as a framework to focus on the integration of foreign faculty at some universities.

These gaps in current knowledge led to the research questions for this thesis.

i) **How do foreign faculty see themselves being integrated into Japan's universities?**

ii) **How do governmental and institutional polices impact the integration of foreign faculty (FF) in Japan's universities from the FF point of view?**

iii) **How do foreign faculty see themselves in the internationalization of Japanese universities?**

# Chapter 4: Methodology

## 4.0 Introduction and Research Rational

This chapter begins with an outline of the goals of this research undertaking, followed by an explanation of the research paradigm. Epistemological and ontological positioning of this thesis is explored and then the theoretical framework is discussed.

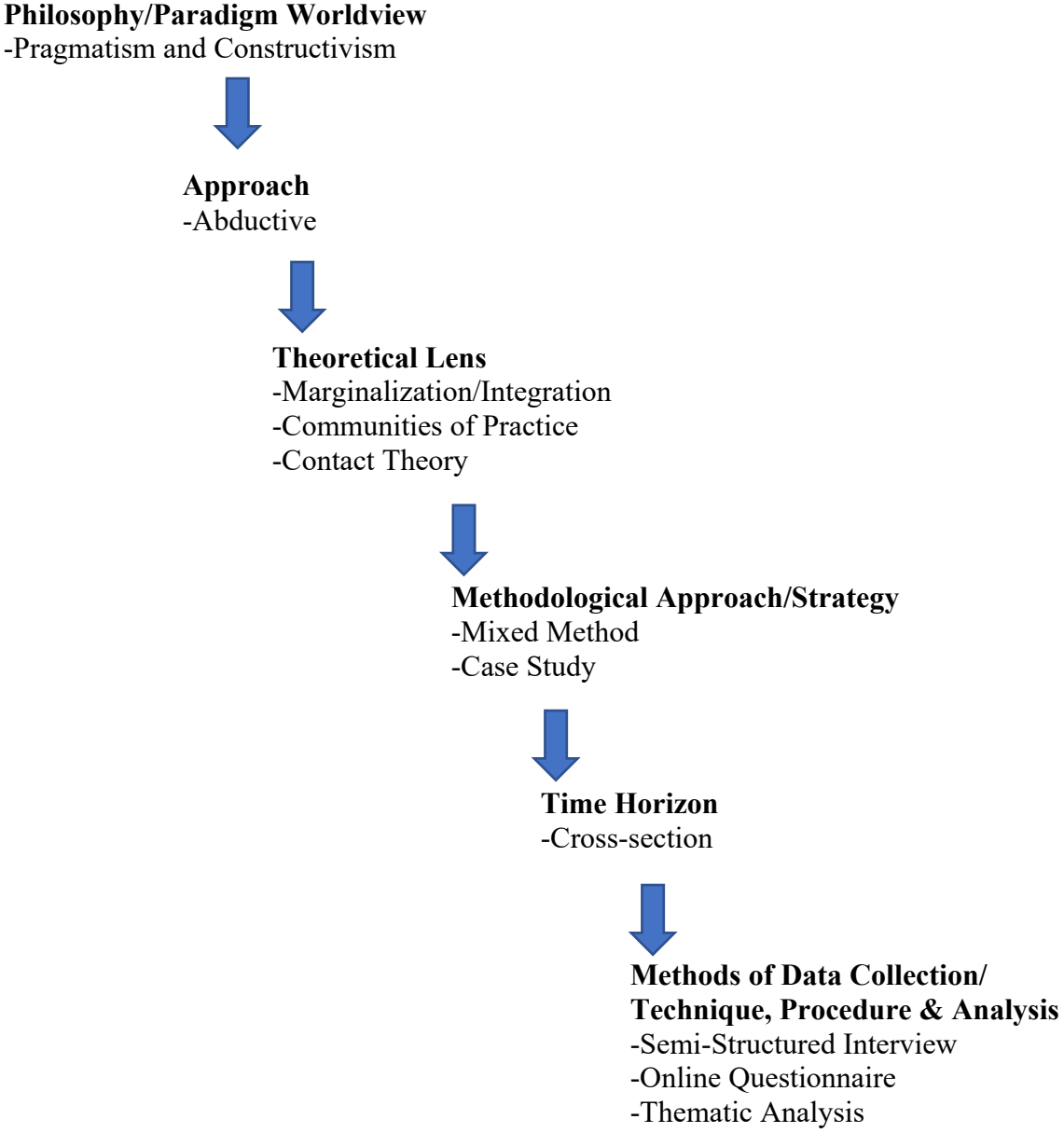
Based on the nature of this research and the phenomenon under review, a mixed-method approach was selected. The reasoning for this will be explained and critiqued with a description of the timing of the data collection, as well as how the data was weighted and combined during analysis. The decision to undertake a case study will be discussed, and the benefits of such an approach will be outlined, including how concerns were addressed. The final section will outline the chronological phases of the research, which cover design, pilot test, gathering of data, analysis and discussion. The chapter concludes with a summary of the key points.

The aim of this thesis was to examine the integration of foreign (non-Japanese) faculty in the pursuit of internationalization by Japanese universities. There are several perspectives that are necessary to consider in the course of this research. There was an investigation of long-term strategies to support and retain foreign faculty at HEIs in Japan. There was an exploration of the infrastructure, or lack of, to support foreign faculty integration in Japanese HEIs. There was consideration of Japanese university policies, which cover foreign faculty members. Moreover, the perceptions of foreign faculty were analysed in relation to what the policy documents stated. Finally, the research investigated how foreign faculty see themselves and their role within the university.

## 4.1 The Research Paradigm

A research undertaking begins when the researcher has established a suitable research methodology which informs and underpins the character and interpretation of the research process (Maxwell, 2013). Figure 4.1 (below) illustrates the underlying philosophical underpinnings and subsequent design decisions made in the course of this study. The concepts, assumptions, expectations, beliefs, and theories that supports and informs the research were a key part in this study's research design (Robson & McCartan, 2016). These have all been addressed and critiqued throughout this dissertation.

**Figure 4.1.** Levels for Developing a Research Study




Source: Adapted from Crotty (1998)

### 4.2 Epistemological and Ontological Positioning

A research paradigm is characterized as a collection of common beliefs and arguments shared by a community of researchers regarding how knowledge is understood and how questions are addressed (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). A research paradigm incorporates

a researcher's past experiences, relationship to knowledge and real-world research application (Patton, 2015). Furthermore, a particular research paradigm is characterized by its epistemology, ontology and methodology (Guba, 1990).

Epistemology is the investigation of the nature of knowledge itself, and then concerns itself with the methods of discerning those truths (Cohen et al., 2011). There is a focus on the means of acquiring knowledge and how we can differentiate between truth and fiction (Gray, 2014). Modern epistemology generally involves a debate between rationalism and empiricism. In rationalism, knowledge is acquired through the use of reason while empiricism encompasses knowledge gained through experiences (Maxwell, 2013; Gray, 2014). According to Gray (2014), truth and meaning do not exist in another world but are created by the interaction of humans within the real world. Gray goes on to state that "meaning is constructed not discovered" (p. 20).

Ontology is about *what* is true. The given researcher's ontological beliefs concern the nature of their reality, which is explored through the researchers' lens. This encompasses investigations relating to the nature of the world including: social phenomena; whether reality is orderly or lawful; the existence of the natural social order; and considerations that reality is constructed by the individuals involved in the particular research environment (Creswell, 1998).

It is important to be mindful of one's own epistemology and ontological mind sets, namely the way that one constructs reality (Patton, 2015). Bringing these elements together, they 'frame' the way the researcher asks questions and interprets the answers that arise from the particular topic.

### 4.3 Selecting the theoretical framework

There were several approaches considered as the theoretical framework for this thesis. Each approach was critically assessed and then accepted or rejected for inclusion in this study.

The approaches explored are critical realism, interpretivism, grounded theory, constructivism and pragmatism.

Critical realism (CR) acknowledges that social phenomena are intrinsically meaningful and that meaning is not only externally descriptive of such phenomena but also constitutive of them (Sayer, 2000). Therefore, the meaning has to be understood; it cannot be measured or counted; thus, there are always interpretative or hermeneutic elements in social science. Sayer (2000) argues that critical realism is moderately tolerant with respect to different research methods. However, for the purposes of this study, critical realism was rejected because CR has certain basic assumptions that were restrictive for this research, such as social phenomena are concept dependent, and the world exists independently of our knowledge of it.

Interpretivism includes a focus on society and culture. Phenomenology focuses on a deep understanding of lived experience with the world's subjective interpretation as constructed by people in society. Phenomenology is the study of consciousness structures as experienced from the first-person perspective (Patton, 2015) and interpretivism views actions as defined by observed experiences rather than by externally described facts (Cohen et al., 2011). However, limitations associated with interpretation relate to the researcher; there is considerable opportunity for prejudice. Primary data produced in interpretative studies cannot be generalized because personal beliefs and values influence the data. The reliability and representativeness of the data are, therefore, compromised to some degree. Disadvantages associated with phenomenology may include a difficulty understanding the meanings attached by participants and the development of new theories. Phenomenology and interpretivism were considered as a theoretical framework but both were rejected for the reasons above.

Grounded Theory (GT) posits the use of a series of formal but flexible guidelines for the collection and analysis of qualitative data to construct evidence-based hypotheses (Charmaz, 2014). The discovery and elaboration of themes in grounded theory, while systematic, is inductive and continually evolving. GT is a collection of inductive and iterative methods intended to define definitions and principles that are then incorporated into structured theoretical frameworks within the text (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). However, GT was rejected in this case as it would have required the researcher to develop a theory at the conclusion of the research undertaking, which was not the goal of the undertaking.

Pragmatism is based on the proposition that researchers should use the philosophical and methodological approach that works best for the particular research problem that is being investigated (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). Pragmatism is a world view or paradigm that should underpin most mixed methods research since it is a 'problem-oriented' philosophy; it believes the best research methods help answer the research question most effectively. In social science research, this often involves a mix of quantitative and qualitative methods used to evaluate different aspects of a research problem (Creswell & Clark, 2018). These perspectives influence personal and community practices that become essential to understanding different perspectives and cultures (McNiff & Whitehead, 2005). For these reasons, pragmatism was also used as a theoretical framework because it allowed for the analysis and focus of the consequences of the research along with the questions being asked rather than the method being used.

According to Patton (2015), constructivism is the study of "multiple realities constructed by different groups of people and the implications of those constructions for their lives and interactions with others" (p.121). Constructivism sees the world as a place where knowledge is

constructed through the interaction with others while knowledge is formed when people come together to discuss ideas in a social setting (Cohen et al., 2011). Baxter and Jack (2008) argue that “constructivists claim that truth is relative to the situation and that it is dependent on one’s perspective” (p. 545). Constructivism was selected because, constructivism includes the social aspect, which was critical for the examination of the social factors affecting foreign faculty in their relationship with other instructors and with the institution where they work.

### 4.4 Mixed Methods Approach

Pragmatism is considered appropriate for a mixed methods methodology. Creswell (2009) states "for mixed methods researchers, pragmatism opens the door to multiple methods, different worldviews, and different assumptions, as well as different forms of data collection and analysis" (p.11). Gray (2014) points out that the mixing of quantitative and qualitative data in a single study is not only valid, but legitimate. According to Patton (2015), pragmatic principles include focusing the research on generating useful answers to the research questions and adapting the design to real-world limits in terms of time, access and resources. Based on the unique characteristics of this research, pragmatism was selected as the best approach because it allows for the flexibility to gather data from a diverse group of foreign faculty with unique backgrounds, cultures, and a domestic environment that is averse to change. Therefore, a mixed methods approach was selected for this research.

Mixed methods research uses a blend of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (Silverman, 2013); characterized as an investigation in which the investigator collects and analyses evidence, combines findings and draws inferences utilizing qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods in a single investigative sample (Creswell & Clark, 2018). Östlund, Kidd,

Wengström, & Rowa-Dewar, (2011) suggest that when researchers combine both quantitative and qualitative methods, the strength of the two approaches leads to a better understanding of the research problem than either approach alone. The integration of differing qualitative and quantitative methods is a central resource where the exchanges and connections between the different approaches taken within each of the components are a specific and distinguishing characteristic of mixed method studies (Bazeley, 2018).

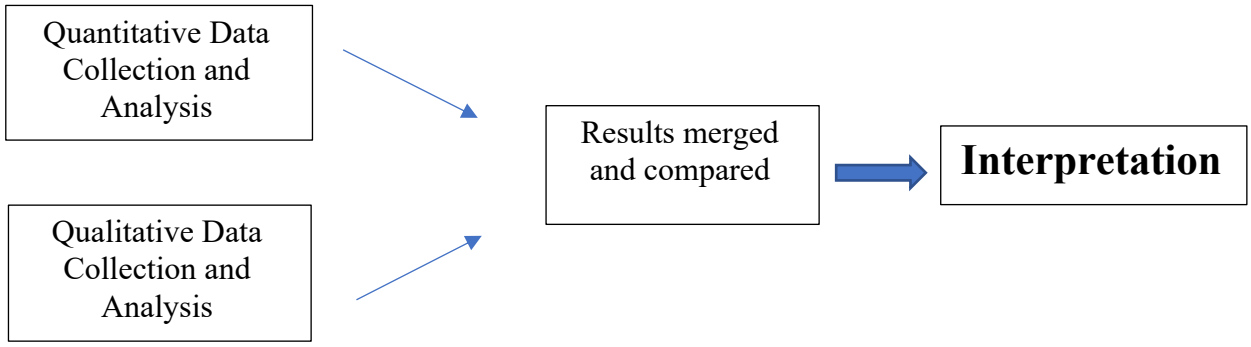
The benefits of mixed methods are that existing and emerging methods can be combined, in which both open and closed-ended questions are allowed. The data is collected using multiple tools that draw on a number of different possibilities and uses statistical and text analysis that allow for a broader interpretation of the data. As a result, this leads to a more in-depth analysis with a greater possibility of usable findings (Creswell, 2013).

There are concerns when utilizing mixed-methods. Researchers need to grasp and carefully analyse each of the aspects of mixed method design, and also be aware of validity concerns with the main design aspects. These aspects include: intent, theoretical motivation, timing (simultaneity and dependence), point of incorporation, typological versus interactive approaches to design, and scheduled versus evolving design. Researchers need to avoid employing parallel concepts in data collections for quantitative and qualitative data and avoid having unequal quantitative and qualitative sample sizes while at the same time keeping results from different data sets separate. These concerns can be partially addressed by a convergent data analysis integration strategy or by comparing the data sets.

A mixed-methods approach leads to a Convergent design (Figure 4.2), which benefited this research in several ways: the researcher could bring together the results from the quantitative and qualitative data analysis so that the entire data set could be compared, combined and

analysed as one (Creswell & Clark, 2018). This design allowed weaknesses in one approach to be identified and rectified while enabling meanings in the data to be explored, validated and triangulated within both data sets (Cohen et al., 2011).

**Figure 4.2** Convergent Design




Source: Adapted from Creswell and Clark (2018)

### 4.5 Case Study

A case study method was selected for this dissertation since the research investigates a sample community from a wider society in their natural setting (Yin, 2014). A case study should be richly concise in order to bring to life the nature of the findings uncovered in the events under analysis (Crowe, Cresswell, Robertson, Huby, Avery, & Sheikh, 2011). A case study approach also provides sources of rich data to fully investigate the interplay between the contextual structural and social considerations in the research. (Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell & Clark, 2018). This study took the form of a descriptive case study (DCS) with both qualitative and quantitative data collected from a questionnaire and follow-up interviews; the purpose of which was to describe a phenomenon in its real-world context (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2014).

In this thesis, the participants, foreign faculty and their experiences were examined within their particular institution's confines. The data in this research was collected using semi-

structured interviews and a questionnaire to construct meaning in context (Gray, 2014; Yin, 2014). The case study investigated a contemporary phenomenon: the foreign faculty and their experiences within ACU, and the lived-life experiences of foreign faculty in a real-world context that is unfamiliar to those outside of Japan. The research examined different aspects of internationalization in Japan from the foreign faculty perspective and their lived experiences. The case study allowed actors to speak about their perspectives of integrating foreign faulty in a Japanese setting. It also examined conflicts between the government's and HEIs' policies, and the experiences of these foreign workers within these conflicts.

Hitchcock and Hughes' (1995, p. 317) proposed seven steps in a successful case study. Saldaña (2016) has recently cited these steps and Yin (2019) suggests they remain relevant despite the passing of time. These steps include:

1. Providing detailed insight into the relevant case;
2. Presenting a chronological narrative;
3. Blending description with analysis;
4. Focusing on the individual;
5. Highlighting specific events relevant to the case;
6. Allowing researcher involvement in the case; and
7. Portraying detail and richness of the case experience in the report.

The seven steps were implemented by conducting a thorough literature review (Step 1) before starting the investigation. The researcher kept meticulous notes in the research log, which helped to provide a chronological narrative as well as a descriptive analysis of the case study (Steps 2 and 3). The questionnaire and interviews allowed for a detailed description of the participants' different events, along with individual stories that made up the journey of gaining

their position at a university (Steps 2, 3, 4 and 5). The researcher, being Japanese with native English ability and cultural insight, could interact with both domestic and non-Japanese actors in a way that other researchers may not have been able to so; therefore, the researcher could capture a different perspective and rich detail that other scholars could have possibly overlooked (Steps 6 and 7).

Zainal (2007) comments that the case study approach must address specific concerns. One concern is the lack of rigour. The researcher might have been careless in long-term data collection when gathering, documenting, and interpreting data and observations, which might result in conclusions not supported by the data. A single researcher often performs case studies, so issues regarding data processing without another researcher's involvement are possible risks. There is often a possibility for prejudice as the data is presented and analysed by only one study. Case studies might be focused on limited samples or only a particular subject, and there is some doubt as to whether any results are relevant to the general population (Yin, 2014). To support the case study design, such questions should be answered.

Concerns about case study methodology were addressed in a variety of different ways. Careful record-keeping was undertaken using a logbook, and the thoughts and insights of the researcher were recorded consistently and regularly throughout the research process. Transparency was enhanced by confirming interview transcripts with participants and making notes available to other researchers who may wish to attempt to replicate the findings. In order to keep data organized, a spreadsheet was used to store data, such as transcripts and researcher comments, as this allowed the larger amounts of data to be accessed quickly and easily for comparison purposes. In addition, descriptive notes of the researcher’s thoughts, concerns and findings were recorded contemporaneously in the research logbook whenever possible. As

addressed in earlier chapters, the researcher made every effort to address bias to ensure the transparency of positionality.

Yin (2018) proposes a case study approach to explore a trend in the real world but notes that a compelling case study needs a variety of data sources to triangulate the findings. A case study approach is well-suited for exploring the events under study; particularly the social and cultural complexities, and the interplay between the participants through quantitative and qualitative data gathering and analysis. The case is set by geography (Japan), temporally (currently employed), by the nature of the group (foreign faculty), by their role (teachers using English as the medium of instruction), and by their institution (HE) (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995, p. 319).

## 4.6 Research Design

### 4.6.1 Introduction

This thesis employed two different data gathering tools. The first was an online questionnaire, followed by semi-structured interviews, to ensure an adequate breadth of data. The tools were designed to explored new insights in relation to the existing conversation by providing plausible local explanations about the current situation of non-Japanese faculty working within the domestic university system.

Dornyei (2003) states that questionnaires can yield three types of data from the respondents, namely: factual, behavioural and attitudinal. These three perspectives were important to assess the attitudes of the participants towards their institutions. An online semi-structured questionnaire was employed to gather data from a cross-section of foreign faculty working at Japanese universities. According to Gray (2014), questionnaires have several inherent

advantages: the inflow of data is quick and gathered from many people, data analysis of closed questions is relatively simple, and questions can be coded quickly; therefore, there is a lack of interviewer bias. The design and piloting of the questionnaire is discussed later in this chapter. Google Docs was used as a platform to design and administer the pilot online questionnaire and the online questionnaire for the main study (see Appendix E).

### 4.6.2 Participant recruitment

According to Maxwell (2013), the selection of participants in research is based on how they can best respond to the research aims and questions, as well as their accessibility and availability. The strategic selection principle is termed ‘critical case sampling’, which is beneficial when there is a single case under study. Further, any sampling strategy implies building a relationship with participants and gatekeepers to ensure participation, which cannot be taken for granted. This thesis employed Maxwell's purposive sampling (PS) in which participants are intentionally chosen to include knowledge: knowledge that is particularly relevant to the study's questions and goals, and cannot be accessed from other selection methods. PS allows the researcher to select representativeness or typicality of individuals, to adequately capture the heterogeneity of a specific population, to deliberately select individuals that are critical for testing the theories of the research, to illuminate the reasons for differences between settings and individuals, and to select participants with whom the researcher can establish the most productive relationship.

The weaknesses of PS are that the researcher requires considerable knowledge of the study's setting and needs to account for the feasibility of access, data collection, validity concerns, and ethical issues (Maxwell, 2013). The researcher addressed these concerns in several ways. The researcher was aware of the setting since he had worked for over twelve years in HE

in Japan, including over eight years at ACU. Being bilingual and bicultural, he was granted access to domestic and non-domestic faculty, staff meetings and enjoyed professional social interactions with various actors. Data collection and analysis concerns were addressed by following Braun and Clark's (2006; 2013) procedures. The wide variety of participants in the research included tenured and non-tenured foreign faculty from ACU and a broad range of univariates in Japan, and this aided in addressing validity concerns by attempting to collect data from a wide range of sources. Finally, a thesis supervisor and the UoL thesis committee monitored the thesis, and ethical approval was sought and granted by the UoL and ACU.

### 4.6.3 Online questionnaire participants

The online questionnaire was e-mailed by the researcher to heads of departments that have English medium instruction (EMI) classes with non-Japanese faculty at ACU. They were asked to distribute the e-mail within their department and to other non-Japanese faculty in Japan. The e-mail contained an introduction to the research, an information sheet, consent information (see Appendix D), and a link to the online questionnaire. To identify further members of the community to participate in the online questionnaire, a ‘snowball’ technique was used. Dorneyei (2003) defines snowball sampling as “a ‘chain reaction’ whereby the researcher identifies a few people who meet the criteria of the particular study and then asks these participants to identify further members of the population” (p.72). This was undertaken in an effort to achieve a sufficiently large data set that it could be representative of foreign faculty across Japan with input from faculty at both public and private universities.

The questionnaire was open for 60 days and within this timeframe three reminder e-mails were sent out to online questionnaire participants. The first one was sent out seven days after the

initial e-mail, the second one 18 days later, and the final one 30 days after the original e-mail. After 60 days, the questionnaire was closed. In total, 118 completed the questionnaire; 47 were from ACU and others were from a broad range of universities in Japan, including public and private universities. A further breakdown of respondent data can be found in Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1** Demographics of Online Questionnaire Participants

| Nationality | Male/Female Ration | Age Group | Number of Years Teaching at Universities in Japan | Level of spoken Japanese | Level of Reading Japanese |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 42% American<br>16% British<br>16% Canadian<br>7% Australian<br>2% Irish<br>1% Austrian<br>1% Chinese<br>1% Colombian<br>1% Finish<br>1% Hong Kongese<br>1% Israeli<br>1% Russian<br>1% Singaporean<br>1% South Korean<br>1% Taiwanese<br><br>2% did not indicate nationality | 60% male<br>35% female<br>5% gave no answer | 45% 41-50 years of age<br>21% 51-60 yeas of age<br>19% 36-40 years of age. | 43% 11-20 years<br>24% 6-10 years<br>11% 4-5 years<br>10% 1-3 years | 26% (JLPT N1)<br>39% (JLPT N2)<br>23% (JPLT N3)<br>4% (JPLT N4)<br>7% (JLPT N5)<br>1% none | 22% (JLPT N1)<br>17% (JLPT N2)<br>33% (JPLT N3)<br>13% (JPLT N4)<br>12% (JLPT N5)<br>3% none |
| **Note:** | | | | | |
| | | | | Self-indicated spoken level of Japanese based on the Japanese Language Proficiency test (JLPT) | Self-indicated written level of Japanese based on the Japanese Language Proficiency test (JLPT) |

The positions of these foreign faculty members, their type of university, and their employment status are as follows (Table 4.2)

**Table 4.2:** Employment Status of Online Questionnaire Participants

| Positions held by foreign faculty | Types of Universities* | Employment status** |
|---|---|---|
| 34% Lecturers | 81% Private | 68% Non-tenured |
| 27% Associate Professors | 15% Public | 34% Part-time (Adjunct) |
| 21% Instructors | 12% National | 30% Full-time tenured |
| 5% Practical English Instructors | | |
| 3% Faculty Heads | | |
| 10% Other | | |

*Some foreign faculty work at one or more universities.
**Tenured faculty may work at another university in a non-tenured capacity.

### 4.6.4 Semi-Structured, face to face interviews

Although the questionnaire reached almost every corner of Japan, ethical guidelines only permitted follow-up interviews with ACU faculty. Therefore, every participant completed the questionnaire, but only foreign faculty members at ACU were eligible to be recruited for the follow-up interviews. One benefit of participants all being from the same institution was that, according to Yin (2014), this single location helped enhance a more extensive and in-depth examination of the community influences regarding the events under investigation.

According to Guest, Bunce, & Johnson (2006), with respect to data saturation and sample size, data saturation can be reached within the first 12 interviews. Guest et al. (2006) also state that the "basic elements for metathemes" are present in as early as six interviews (based on a study using 60 interviews and analysed using thematic analysis). Although there were only seven volunteer participants, literature suggests that this can be sufficient sample size.

The aim of the semi-structured interviews was to identify the meanings that participants attributed to integration into the community within the confines of the Japanese university system. Interviews are best used to investigate how individuals interpret lived experiences by asking about their attitudes, feelings and insights regarding the phenomenon under investigation

(Gray, 2014). The advantage of semi-structured interviews is that the researcher can "probe for more detailed responses [while] respondents are asked to clarify what they have said" (Gray, 2014, p.382) in order to prevent misinterpretation and misunderstanding of the participants' actual experiences. Although semi-structured interviews do not require asking participants the same questions, there is a potential for inevitable biases like sexism, racism, ageism and other discriminatory factors. An interviewer might give out unconscious cues or signals that guide the respondent to give answers expected by the interviewer. Although miscommunication is not uncommon in all the interview techniques, there is potential for misunderstanding rooted in different operationalizations of words or cultural differences, so standardization of the terminology used in the interview situation is important (Opdenakker, 2006). The foreign faculty who were interviewed were aware of the researchers' insider role at ACU, and this did not influence the interviewees. The researcher did not hold a position of authority over any of the interviewees; the only commonality was they were employed by the same institution, possibly in the same faculty but without day-to-day contact.

After each interview, additional notes were made that included reflections on the interview experience, then the interview was transcribed on the same day or, at the latest, the following day. Reflections raised awareness of the complexity of conducting interviews. For example, only one interviewee had been an academic outside of Japan. The remainder came to Japan without any academic foundation; teaching or research experience. Therefore, some of the questions had to be reworded and more detailed follow-up questions had to be asked depending on their teaching experience. The follow-up questions regarded terminology used in Japanese universities, such as *koma* meaning 'ninety-minute lesson'. A conscious attempt was made not to impose the personal opinions or beliefs of the researcher. This was achieved by following the

same procedure for each interview; for example, the researcher asked the same initial, follow-up interview questions, took detailed notes during and after the interview, and made reflective notes after each interview (Gray, 2014).

Table 4.3 lists the pseudonyms assigned to the interviewees, and gives a brief description of their demographic statistics and information about their academic credentials and teaching experience in Japan. The interviewees represented, to the degree possible, a representative cross-section of foreign faculty at ACU.

**Table 4.3** Interview Participants

| Pseudonym | Male/Female | Age Bracket | Number of Years Teaching at Universities in Japan | Tenured/Non-Tenured | Highest Degree Held | Academic Experience Outside of Japan | Spoken Level of Japanese ***(JLPT) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Liam | Male | 41-50 | 1-4 years | Non-tenured | *Masters | None | Level 2 |
| Noah | Male | 41-50 | 5-8 years | Tenured | Masters | None | Level 2 |
| Mia | Female | 31-35 | 5-8 years | Non-tenured | Masters | **Limited | Level 4 |
| Lucas | Male | 51-60 | 12-16 years | Non-tenured | Master | None | Level 3 |
| David | Male | 51-60 | 12-16 years | Tenured | PhD | None | Level 2 |
| Oliver | Male | 51-60 | 20-23 years | Tenured | Masters | Yes | Level 2 |
| Logan | Male | 41-50 | 12-16 years | Non-tenured | Master | None | Level 3 |

*Recently completed
**Less than two academic years
***(JLPT) Japanese Language Proficiency Test

### 4.6.5 The pilot study

According to Cohen et al. (2011), Gray (2014) and Silverman (2013), a pilot study performs several key functions, one being a critical pre-test of the actual data collection tool. In this case, the pilot study was necessary because of the lack of pre-existing data from other similar studies. In addition, the pilot study acted as a tool to increase the reliability, practicability and validity of the questionnaire and interview questions (Dörnyei, 2007). In addition, Dörnyei and Csizér (2012) indicate that piloting a questionnaire allows for fine tuning in order to

eliminate ambiguous, too difficult/easy, or irrelevant items, improvement of the clarity of the wording, and a trial run of the analysis in order to test whether the expected findings will, in theory, emerge from the data collected.

The pilot study of the online questionnaire and interview questions was conducted to specifically identify items that lacked clarity or were inappropriate, to test the vocabulary used (including technical terms) and the suitability of the Likert scale, and to examine which questions should be reworded or which items should be deleted. Furthermore, the pilot questionnaire served to examine if questions were directly related to the research questions and to determine if sections needed to be edited to address the aims of the research. (Rattray & Jones, 2007). Another key benefit of piloting is that it can allow for adjustments in the length of the questionnaire and interview in order to understand if the technical language used is understood by the participants and to examine the grouping of the questions. A check can also be made to determine if the questionnaire can be analysed, to confirm a spread of responses across the questionnaire, to review clarity and relevance of the items, and to determine the reliability and validity of the data gathering tools (Cohen et al., 2011; Rattray & Jones, 2007).

#### 4.6.6 Pilot online questionnaire

The pilot online questionnaire elicited the experiences of non-Japanese faculty. This included their organization's policies on foreign faculty, domestic faculty community, knowledge of MEXT policy, and personal experience regarding integration, assimilation into the institution and work experience. It was administered at ACU via the internal e-mail system to various departments that conduct EMI classes. The potential respondents were informed that their participation was voluntary and that they were under no obligation to take part or answer any particular survey questions. A participant information sheet and a consent notification was

attached to the pilot survey. A total of 25 non-Japanese faculty took part in the survey from a total of 78 e-mails sent. The piloted questionnaire and interview questions were instrumental in forming the final version of the follow-up online questionnaire and semi-structured interview questions.

This pilot survey consisted of thirty-one questions with a mix of multiple-choice, closed- and open-ended questions. The survey used a five-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. The first group of questions were demographic; they concerned the participants' background, nationality, educational qualifications, and length of time in tertiary education in Japan. This was followed by questions relating to Japanese language ability, reasons for coming to Japan, and knowledge about Japanese HE. Next, the survey included questions about insights into the Japanese university system and the internationalization of the university. The pilot survey revealed a number of weaknesses in the data collection tool, such as wording, question order, the number of questions, and the instructions on how to complete each section. Gray (2014) states that "piloting a questionnaire usually helps to eliminate or at least reduce questions that are likely to mislead" (p. 354).

The pilot questionnaire was administered at ACU to a department that consisted of foreign faculty members with one or more years of teaching experience at the university level and who use English as the medium of instruction. This group was chosen for its diversity in nationalities, wide age group, different educational backgrounds, and the range of experience teaching at the university level. Convenience or opportunity sampling is the most common non-probability sampling type in research (Dörnyei, 2007). However, according to Dörnyei and Csizér (2012), convenience sampling is rarely completely convenience-based but usually in part purposeful, which indicates that the participants have to possess certain traits that are related to

the intent of the proposed research. As previously mentioned, there were 25 respondents to the questionnaire from the 78 e-mails sent. The findings from this pilot questionnaire informed changes and confirmed the final questionnaire for this thesis are discussed in section 4.7.

### 4.6.7 Pilot interview study

The pilot interview was administered to an adjunct lecturer, a non-tenured associate professor, and a tenured professor, all three were faculty members at ACU. These individuals were chosen because of their diverse background, their longevity in Japan and teaching at the university level, as well as their diversity in qualifications. This allowed for a diverse range of responses to the pilot interview questions. Each interview lasted between 50 to 60 minutes. The interviews were digitally recorded and handwritten notes were taken concurrently during the audio recording of the interview. The researcher noted body language, including facial expressions, and any hesitations related to a lack of understanding of or confusion with the terminology. In addition, the researcher made notes of personal reflections during and after the interviews.

The pilot interview questions were open-ended and the interviews were semi-structured. This was done to create an environment that would allow for a diversity of responses. The interview questions consisted of personal background questions, such as the interviewees' institutional setting at ACU, as well as inquiries about their perceptions of HE internationalization in Japan, their knowledge of the effects of MEXT policies on their work conditions, their opinions on how their own situation supports or hinders the internationalization into Japan's HE system, and their insights into their own integration into the overall teaching staff.

### 4.6.8 Initial changes from the pilot study

An interesting observation found both in the pilot online questionnaire and interviews was the lack of consistency in the knowledge and understanding of the technical terms used. For example, the term 'Higher Education' was interpreted in several different ways by the participants. Most construed the phrase as any formal education after high school, but others included specialized schools and apprenticeships. However, the purpose of the research was to include only universities and colleges; therefore, the word 'university' replaced the use of 'higher education' in the final interview schedule. In addition, the terms 'domestic' and 'foreign' were misunderstood, so clarity was given as to their meaning to imply 'within' or 'outside' of Japan respectively.

Several items that were comparable to results from previous studies (Whitsed, 2011; Whitsed & Volet, 2013). For example, the ratio of female faculty was the same at 1:3. In addition, the participants' age ranged was also similar, it ranged from 25 to 61 years of age; however, the majority were in their 40s. The preliminary findings of interest from the pilot questionnaire were that 52 percent of the respondents were employed on a part-time basis, and most held an instructor or lecturer position at their university. For qualifications, just over 60 percent only had only a bachelor's degree as their highest qualification when they started teaching in Japan while 56 percent hold a Master's degree. Regarding MEXT HE policy, over 40 percent were unaware of any policies and just under 35 percent were unaware of MEXT policy that directly affected HE in Japan, such as 'The Top Global University Project'. If one includes the 'neither agree or nor disagree' responses, the number rises to over 65 percent. The findings

from the pilot studies were used to develop the online questionnaire and semi-structured interviews.

**4.7 Development of Online Questionnaire**

The pilot online questionnaire aided the follow-up questionnaire on several levels. Yin (2014) states there are different levels of questions: Level 1 checks basic facts, understanding, and asks for more information; Level 2 requires the processing of the information and making inferences from the text, and this challenges the authority; and Level 3 requires connecting ideas, starting new dialogues and identifying patterns. As a result, the online questionnaire was completely rewritten and formatted to dig beneath the surface in order to examine the essence of the foreign faculty's role in relation to their becoming an integral part of the community. The subsequent online questionnaire addressed the issues that were raised by the pilot participants, and these included rewording of questions and reorganizing the order in which they were asked.

The final questionnaire was divided into five sections: (1) Eligibility to Participate/Background information; (2) Integrating into the Japanese University Work Environment; (3) Internationalization of Japanese Universities; (4) The Role of Non-Tenured Foreign Faculty in University Policymaking; and (5) Demographic and Employment Information. A Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree was used. Section 1 of the questionnaire covered eligibility to participate in the study and established if the participants were non-Japanese. Compared to this researcher's study, Huang (2017) and Yonezawa et al. (2013) included faculty that were born in Japan but did not hold Japanese citizenship, were educated in Japan, and used the Japanese language for instruction in their studies. Section 2 examined the foreign faculty's work environment, as well as factors that affected tenured and non-tenured foreign faculty integration. These included their knowledge of

their university polices and the foreign faculty's ability to discuss institutional policy regarding their employment. Section 3 focused on the internationalization of universities in Japan and foreign faculties influence on aspects of internationalization. Section 4 emphasized the relationship of the foreign faculty to MEXT and institutional policies. Section 5 focused on the demographic and employment information regarding the individual foreign faculty members. A total of fifty questions were asked, but the pilot questionnaire indicated that most participants completed the questionnaire within ten to twelve minutes. The questionnaire included open-ended, closed, and multiple-choice questions. The last section asked for participants to volunteer for the interview stage of the study. The interviews were open to all participants, however, due to the difficulty of obtaining ethical approval from each university, only volunteers from ACU were selected to be interviewed. They self-identified via their institutional e-mail address.

### 4.8 Development of the Semi-structured Interviews

The qualitative interview is a flexible tool that can capture the voices of participants and are especially appropriate for collecting information on participates' experiences, beliefs and behaviours (Ryan, Coughlan, & Cronin, 2009). The semi-structured interview allowed this to take place because the interviewer was able to narrow down the topics for discussion, thereby allowing the interviewee to express their story more clearly under the guidance of the researcher (Rabionet, 2011).

The interviews were one of the primary sources of data. The questions were based around the same themes as the online questionnaire. In addition, the interviews allowed the researcher to probe for stories from the foreign faculty that the questionnaire was unable to reveal. The interview consisted of five sections that were similar to the online questionnaire, however, each

question had pre-written follow-up questions, or the interviewer asked for clarification based on the interviewees' responses.

The semi-structured interview was the best fit because the questions were able to be followed up with more detailed queries, thereby allowing for a better understanding of the foreign faculty's experiences and beliefs. According to Yin (2014), interviews are one of the most important sources of data for a case study. Interviews enable participants to share their lived experiences, perceptions and insights concerning their feelings about given events in a flexible manner. The research questions were able to be explained and supported by the data that the respondents provided. The subsequent thematic analysis was able to develop themes formulated by the interviewees' responses and by the data they provided (see Chapter 5 for details).

### 4.9 Data Analysis

Since there was limited quantitative data, it was analysed using the Google platform that provided the questionnaire data; along with descriptive statistics (Boone, & Boone, 2012; Mishra, Pandey, Singh, Gupta, Sahu, & Keshri, 2019). The data did not require extensive analysis as it was not extensive, nor was it complex.

In terms of qualitative analysis, thematic analysis was used to identify and extrapolate patterns of meaning from the data set (Clarke & Braun, 2014; Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012). This involved using the steps outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006) and Braun, Clarke, Hayfield and Terry (2019), which included familiarization of the data; generating initial codes; searching for themes; reviewing themes; defining and naming themes; and producing the report. The questions asked in the online questionnaire and in the semi-structured interviews were

similar in order to compare and contrast the stories of the individual foreign faculty and as a wider community (Wenger, 1998).

Braun and Clarke (2006) state "it is vital that you immerse yourself in the data to the extent that you are familiar with the depth and breadth of the content" (p. 16). Recordings were listened to three times before transcribing. The transcripts were then read three times and notes were made during the second and third readings. This allowed the researcher to reimagine the interview situation, its time and the place, and to recall of the voices of the interviewees. Listening to the interviewees' responses several times allowed for analysis of the intonation, stress patterns and the pauses that occurred during the interviews.

Initially, there were discussions about the use of computer software, such as NVivo or CAQDAS to assist in the analysis of the qualitative data. However, after further discussion, the researcher decided against using software in favour of a manual method. Unlike other qualitative methods that can be neatly coded using software (Gray, 2014), thematic analysis can be carried out thoroughly without the use of computer software with a small number of interviews within a given case study according to Braun and Clarke (2006, 2013). Excel and handwritten notes were used to allow for a more in-depth analysis of the transcripts in order to identify codes that led to themes that evolved from the data set. Braun and Clarke (2006) underline the importance of recognizing that qualitative analysis guidelines are exactly that; they are not rules. Moreover, the process of analysis was not a linear one that simply moved from one set of data to the next. The process was to examine the data individually, as a whole, and to compare data sections with other sections. Throughout the phases, codes and themes emerged from the data.

When reading the transcripts, the researcher framed them in relation to the research questions and continued to keep an open mind while reading and re-reading the data in the

analysis stage. This was done to interpret the phenomenon that the foreign faculty were conveying through their individual experiences. Examining the epistemological and ontological positioning prior to starting the data collection aided in analysing the data without the need to deny the researcher's own attitudes and potential bias.

### 4.9.1 Taking notes and explanatory comments

The interview transcriptions were done using Microsoft Word and a Tascam DR-05 that can adjust the speed of the recording. Notes and explanatory comments were hand-written. An example of the transcription and the data analysis is provided in Appendix G. When taking notes, there were reflective questions and detailed comments that were focused on what the researcher observed; for example, body language, timing of responses, and interviewee follow-up questions. Descriptive comments were based on what was said by the interviewee without making inferences. Descriptive comments assisted the interpretive and reflective process in that this allowed for the identification of some critical issues that had not been voiced regarding foreign faculty in Japan's HEIs. Plausible themes were identified from the interview transcripts and from the quantitative and qualitative questions in the questionnaire.

### 4.9.2 Data analysis: Pre-coding and familiarization

Thematic analysis is an effective method for identifying and analysing patterns in qualitative data, and for reporting themes within the data (Clarke & Braun, 2013). A TA researcher acknowledges the flexibility of TA to address an extensive range of research activates and theoretical perspectives. A researcher needs to be aware that TA requires an ongoing practice of familiarizing oneself with the entire data set and coding the data. Furthermore, the TA

researcher searches for common themes, and then reorganizes, defines, names and writes the up so that the participant's stories are shared within the contextual setting through the existing literature (Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2013). This process was done throughout the analysis stage with the entire data set, including the questionnaire data (both qualitative and quantitative) where descriptive analysis was applied. This aided in sifting through the features of the data under examination (Creswell & Clark, 2018), as well as with sorting the interview data, which involved combining the results of both datasets results based on a mixed method analysis.

### 4.9.3 Data analysis: Generating initial labels

Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest "it is vital that you immerse yourself in the data to the extent that you are familiar with the depth and breadth of the content" (p. 16). The raw data was examined (questionnaire and interviews) and then grouped to find familiar labels and emerging themes. Charts, diagrams and mind maps supported the development of the labels. Single occurrences were not passed over but were considered to be a possible label that could lead to an overall theme. As Boyatzis (1998) states, the most basic fragment, element or section of the raw data can be assessed in a meaningful way regarding the phenomenon being examined. With these broad labels, commonalities and patterns were located within the data to form the initial labels.

### 4.9.4 Data Analysis: Searching for themes

Coding was data-driven by the data set after the initial labelling process. Braun and Clarke (2006, 2013) state that in TA the unearthed themes depend on the data. This coding did not stop at the semantic coding level but continued further to find 'hidden meanings', latent codes, such as assumptions underpinning the semantic content of Clarke and Braun (2013). This

phase ended with compiling the list of codes from the data set (see Table 5.1). TA further requires the refining of potential themes by searching for themes that are unseen in the data waiting to be discovered by the researcher. Twelve 'categories' were created from the set of codes. This process allowed for a more precise examination of the codes that were classified into common ideas, shared themes, familiar stories, and one-off events. This stage of the analysis allowed the researcher to discover comments from the participants that were hidden beneath the surface. These comments were commonplace, but as individual data pieces, they were significant. Also, in the analysis process, some codes and potential themes were inevitably discarded because they did not fit the developing analytic narrative or they were outside of the research aims. For example, the questionnaire data, especially the quantitative data results was overshadowed by the depth and the quality of qualitative data that was given in the open-ended questions, and this was more in line with the interview data. This is reflected in Chapter 4's data analysis, findings and discussion (Braun & Clarke, 2006: Creswell & Clark, 2018). This mixed methods analysis supported the expansion of the entire study along with a broadening of the range of analysis at the macro-, meso-, and micro-levels (Gray, 2014).

### 4.9.5 Data Analysis: Reviewing themes

It is essential to ensure that participant stories and individual voices represent the themes. Therefore, the interview transcripts and open-ended questionnaire were re-examined to confirm that the themes were from the data and directed by the participants' voices. Potential themes were re-examined. Clarke and Braun (2013) suggest that there is no ideal way to do the analysis: researchers must rely on their analytical judgement about what is meaningful, relevant, and culturally significant in order to answer the research questions. By reviewing the potential

themes, the researcher was able to verify that the themes were based on the voices of the participants. As a result, each theme could stand alone and the four themes addressed the research questions in a coherent way.

According to Braun and Clarke (2006, 2013), there are two levels of review for potential themes. First, the researcher has to confirm that the themes work in relation to the data and ensure that the themes capture the essential features of the coded data relevant to the research questions. Second, the researcher has to verify that the themes work within the entire data set. For this research, both datasets were re-examined to ensure that each theme was coherent and substantial with clear boundaries and a distinct central organized concept relevant to the research questions asked.

### 4.9.6 Defining and naming themes

Defining and naming themes is where the analysis took shape, and where four areas developed. Each theme was able to give three perspectives: one from a national level (macro), another from the institutional and governmental level (meso), and a final one from a local level (micro). Moreover, the themes produced detailed and complex definitions that captured their shape and texture, and how they related to each other. According to Clarke and Braun (2013), the analysis must go beyond merely summarising or paraphrasing the data; the data must tell a rich story that is nuanced, conceptually informed interpretative lived life story about the meanings embedded within each theme and go beyond the surface meaning of the data. The four-themes showed how the analysis produced emergent and subordinate themes from the interview transcripts, open-ended questions and questionnaire; how they were noted, modified, refined, rearranged, regrouped and reflected upon by the researcher until the four themes materialized.

How the researcher dealt with the data analysis process will be addressed in chapter 5 (Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2013). This includes a description of decision rules for arriving at judgements during analysis, an audit trail of the analysis process with a description of how codes were developed and applied to the data, and the method used to address coding reliability. Also, triangulation and issues relating to concepts of validity and reliability, such as trustworthiness, plausibility, confirmability, credibility, and confidence, will be addressed (Braun et al., 2019). Sample of coding appears in (Appendix G).

### 4.10 Ensuring Quality in Thematic Analysis

In qualitative research, the aim is not generalisability for a repeatable purpose or identifying universal truths (Gray, 2014). Qualitative inquiry is personal. The researcher is the vehicle for the inquiry and provides the researcher's background, experience, capacity, and cross-cultural sensitivity (Patton, 2015). More specifically, for TA, the goal is to "provide a framework for organizing and reporting the researcher's analytic observations… "TA is not simply to summarize the data content, but to identify, and interpret, key, but not necessarily all, features of the data" (Clarke & Braun, 2017 p. 297). In this research, TA's advantage is its ability to capture describe, and interpret the phenomenon under investigation. It also facilitates the interpretation of the meaning of the phenomenon under study and provides groundwork required for "establishing valid models for human thinking, feeling and behaviour" (Joffe, 2012, p.210). Moreover, TA is used to identify patterns within and across data in relation to participants' lived experience, views and perspectives, behaviour, and practices; in other words, it is "experiential research which seeks to understand what participants' think, feel and do" (Clarke & Braun, 2017, p. 297).

To ensure quality in the TA deployed in this study, Braun and Clarke's (2006) recommendations were followed. They advocate that TA starts when the researcher begins to notice, and looks for, patterns of meaning and issues of potential interest in the data. This can occur at all stages of the data collection.

As explained in Sections 4.2; 1.5, to develop sensitivity to context, the ontological and epistemological underpinnings as well as researcher positionality were kept in mind at all stages. This study had a responsibility to interpret the participants' lived experiences of the phenomenon under investigation through their own lenses.

Triangulation is the combination of data drawn from different sources, and at different times, in different places and from different people. The use of different data collection methods and interpretative approaches were applied to confirm the dependability, confirmability, credibility and transferability of the research methods and findings. Data was collected using a questionnaire and semi-structured interview transcripts while the observational data was gathered from the interviews and the researcher's reflective comments. Additionally, the study used participant verification for the interview transcripts, and background knowledge to ensure the trustworthiness of the findings. Moreover, the data analysis approach was based on a TA which adopted a pragmatic perspective (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

According to Onwuegbuzie, Leech and Collins (2012), another method for confirming the reliability of the data collection and interpretation is by ensuring the suitability, qualification, experience, and background knowledge of the researcher involved in the research process. In this study, the same researcher created and administered the questionnaire, conducted the interviews, and analysed all the data sets. The researcher has an extensive background in tertiary teaching in Japan, is culturally sensitive, and has lived in the country for 16 years, which has enabled insight

into the lives of foreign faculty through different lens. The knowledge gained from the background of teaching in Japan, the day-to-day contact with Japan's academic environment, and the researcher's previous education offers the researcher a strong position for reliable interpretation of the data collected.

Tong, Flemming, Mclnnes, Oliver and Craig (2012) report that transparency in qualitative research encompasses five domains: introduction, methodology, literature search, appraisal, and synthesis of findings. The researcher was aware at each stage of the study that clarity was vital while ambiguity could detract from the participants' data. Each interview began with a synopsis of the research purpose and procedure, as well as an explanation of the ethical approval by the University of Liverpool. Interviewees were asked if they had any questions. Participants were informed that their anonymity would be preserved by the use of pseudonyms (Lahman, Rodriguez, Moses, Griffin, Mendoza, & Yacoub, 2015). Pseudonyms were chosen randomly from a pool of western names.

### 4.11 Ethical Considerations

The University of Liverpool's Integrity Research Policy (University of Liverpool, 2020) outlines several concerns that need to be resolved for ethical and responsible research to be achieved. Overarching guidance includes ensuring that research is truthful and complies with university policies and standards and ensuring transparency for actions. Furthermore, all correspondence must be clear and open, and members must be professional, honest, impartial and show good custodianship, care and rigour in research design. These principles are closely associated with those of the local institution. Every attempt was made to obey and conform to the standards in all dealings with subjects, employees and the institutions concerned

More importantly, the researcher did not have any real or perceived authority over any of the participants. Given the hierarchal structure of the Japanese culture, the researcher, as a part-time, non-tenured faculty member, did not carry any rank or seniority in forcing any respondent to participate. It is believed that all participants were willing volunteers. Further, it was explained to each participant that they could withdraw at any time with no ramifications. However, in this case, there was never any opportunity or situation where the researcher could have held sway or power over any participant. Though participants may have been contacted by a supervisor and asked to participate in the original questionnaire, there was no way for a supervisor to determine whether a subordinate teacher responded, and respondents were well aware of this fact.

This study was granted ethical approval, by the University of Liverpool, UK and Asia Central University, Japan.

Participants were contacted primarily through ACU faculty chairs and department heads through the school's e-mail system and not directly by the researcher as to avoid coercing individuals to participate in the online questionnaire. Participants in the online questionnaire could volunteer for interviews. The researcher provided all participants with an information sheet. This which outlined the research, described its purpose and method of study, and informed them that participation was voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time without reason or penalty. Each interviewee also received a participation consent form prior to the interview (see Appendix D). Participation and consent forms were completed and signed prior to the interview and data being collected. Digital audio recordings were made of all the individual interviews (Tascam DR-05). All recordings were transcribed, and password protected. In addition, all interview transcriptions were agreed to by the interviewee. Participants were informed that it was anticipated that the results would be reprinted as part of a Doctor of Education thesis.

Participants were assigned a name and an e-mail address to write to if they had any concerns or complaints about the research. All raw data will be destroyed after five years.

### 4.13 Summary

This chapter illustrated the pathway taken to reveal the concepts and methodological decisions used to make the participants' stories public. The researcher outlined the journey taken to validate and explain the use of the thematic analysis method; and then, explained how the design contributed to the generation of the data sets. The analysis used Braun and Clark's (2006) six-step analysis tool for TA. Finally, the researcher explained the ethical considerations, and acknowledged his insider and outsider position and its effects on the research (see Section 1.4).

# Chapter 5: Findings and Discussion

## 5.1 Introduction

Following the principles of thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2013, 2019), potential themes were extracted from the transcripts of both questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. A master table of themes was produced from the entire data set (see Table 5.3). The discussion that stemmed from these findings have exposed how adjustments to the current situation can be made to further integrate stakeholders, specifically non-tenured foreign faculty, at the macro- and micro-level of the Japanese university system.

A mixed methods approach was used for the analysis while the data from the questionnaire and interviews were combined at the analysis stage. The questionnaire data (qualitative and quantitative) saw the application of descriptive analysis which aided in the description of the features of the data under examination (Creswell & Clark, 2018). Quantitative data from the questionnaire was combined with the qualitative data from the open-ended questions along with the interview data for analysis.

## 5.2 Results of Thematic Analysis

Data from the questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were analysed separately, then brought together to develop the labels, codes, categories, sub-themes and themes through applying Braun and Clarke's (2006) processes and procedures. Below (Table 5.1) is an example of how the themes developed. Over time twenty-three subordinate themes emerged that ultimately ended up evolving into the four themes identified.

**Table 5.1:** Development of Themes

| Labels | Codes | Categories | Subordinate Themes Questionnaire | Subordinate Themes Interview |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| - cultural difference (jaded/lifer-been in Japan a long time)<br>- outsider not given responsibilities<br>- before coming to Japan<br>- long history in Japan<br>- journey of life<br>- unknown domestic life factors<br>- learning Japanese culture<br>- excitement of new environment<br>- being selected<br>- marriage, country and family | - foreign cultural factors<br>- short-term assignment<br>- foreigner privilege<br>- before entering higher education in Japan | - lack of cultural awareness<br>- foreign faculty cultural factors<br>- home countries' cultural norms<br>- local cultural awareness<br>- reality is different than what is on paper | - lack of cultural awareness<br>- ethnocentric views<br>- façade or veneer presented to the institution<br>- foreign tenured faculty ethnocentrism towards non-tenured foreign faculty | - educational background<br>- life before coming to Japan<br>- before teaching at a university in Japan |
| - language ability<br>- qualifications<br>- learning new skills<br>- domestic institutional factors<br>- domestic student benefit | - monetarily different, remuneration differences<br>- acquiring new skills, qualifications | - Japanized work environment | - monetary reasons, survival, quality of life<br>- domestic student needs | - change of environment, new experiences<br>- Japan is a homogeneous country, foreign faculty offer a different perspective |
| - arrogant, has forgotten being non-tenured<br>- out-of-touch, misinformed<br>- outsider | - foreign faculty expectation<br>- Japan factory, the attraction to Japan by foreign faculty | - lack of cultural integration<br>- Japanese universities are a vertical class system | - ghettoize: create divide, separation by policies and or cultural differences<br>- partition communities (moveable not permanent) | - given responsibility to oversee domestic students' learning<br>- foreign faculty to student facetime |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| - Japanese student to foreign faculty face-to-face time<br>- family needs<br>- long-term planning<br>- foreign faculty groups, clusters, or cliques | | - unique by department and institution<br>- student opinions and interests | | |
| - insider knowledge, inside institutional factors | - glass ceiling for foreign faculty (age, education, language ability) | - pay scale, separate titles, hiring committees<br>- lack of cultural understanding | - built in ambiguity at the institutional and department level<br>- economic and cost factors | - local institutional factors<br>- language ability, and cultural awareness |
| - Japanese cultural factors, communication style, personal titles, (honorifics)<br>- outsider<br>- non-Japanese habits<br>- closed minded thinking | - Japanese university genre (class) system<br>- Japanized integration and assimilation system<br>- Japanized internationalization | - non-tenured foreign faculty are temporary workers<br>- conflicts with local or institutional customs and traditions<br>- domestic faculty needs<br>- domestic operational needs | - excluded from decision making<br>- workload, the number of classes taught | - part-time foreign faculty are more valued than non-tenured domestic faculty but the opposite is true for tenured faculty<br>- for appearance only, no real meaning or outcome |

### 5.3 Development of a Master Table of Themes

By following the TA process (Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2019), labels were created within the data connecting individual ideas. This process identified links that later merged as themes from the subordinate themes and coding.

A master table of themes was produced. The 27 labels were analysed into 12 codes, which created 16 categories, and reanalysed into 12 subordinate themes and four master themes. At each stage, the labels, codes, categories, and subordinate themes were modified, expanded,

and refined according to the TA process of analysing themes based on collected data (Braun & Clarke, 2013). The stages of analysis and the final master themes with explanatory notes regarding the research questions were organised to illustrate the two data sets. Appendix G shows how the labels, codes, categories, subordinate themes, and themes from the interview transcripts and open-ended questions were noted, modified, refined, and regrouped while ongoing analysis took place until the master themes and subordinate themes became visible.

The master theme findings will be explained below theme by theme (Table 5.2).

**Table 5.2:** Further Development of Themes

| **Themes** (developed from four cycles of analysis) | **Theme Development From the Questionnaire** | **Theme Development From the Interviews** |
|---|---|---|
| **Sub-Community** | - multiple groups containing individuals were interconnected within the larger community of foreign faculty<br>- foreign faculty were vertically classed within the community and communities, by peers and institutional policies | - foreign faculty were involved in a non-academic community in their home countries<br>- after starting university in Japan, intertwined and cooperative communities developed, however, these communities had no direct connection to the institution<br>- community for a lifestyle that was non-Japanese |
| **Internationalisation** | - monetary reward and financial stability<br>- perceived prestige within the institution, department and community<br>- self-reward before community reward | - to enter university teaching means to establish a foundation to remain in Japan; therefore, the learning of the craft of teacher in the early years is one of the main focal points, as well as creating a rapport with the students and student body |
| **Integration** | - built in ambiguity in the process of integration for non-Japanese, both regarding policy and cultural factors<br>- Japan and institution first mentality at the governance and operational level of an institution | -becoming part of the team, department member is unproblematic; however, there are preconditions, the principal being that integration is temporary and unviable to gain permanency without personal and cultural sacrifices |
| **Assimilation** | - conformity to MEXT policy on the surface, i.e. internationalization at all costs, no exceptions<br>- cultural divide<br>- misunderstanding or no understanding of the domestic system or institutional norms, regarding differences in how Japanese and non-Japanese faulty members participate in becoming one unit<br>- ghettoize institutions and departments | - each institution, department and community have a unique set of rules which are written or implied, even within the same community<br>- rules are not taught, written or expressed<br>- one must know the rules to be willing to assimilate, i.e. learning the proper Japanese and mannerisms for working within the institution and department<br>- foreign faculty are part of the institution/department while working independently but report to the institution via a leadership that is predetermined by the university |

**Table 5.3** Themes Defined

| Themes | Themes Defined |
|---|---|
| **Sub-community** | A group of non-Japanese form a community, this group is made up of smaller groups (sub-community). Membership is not defined; one can join one group or several groups at one time and membership is not guaranteed. This community is seen as one group by outsiders. |
| **Internationalisation** | Internationalization is used to extend the ideas of Japan to the world not to bring the international world to Japanese universities and to showcase foreign faculty as a symbol of internationalization. |
| **Integration** | Integration is for the benefit of the Japanese university. The process is ambiguous to outsiders. Foreign faculty are considered transient, temporary, and have little or no standing within the university. |
| **Assimilation** | Japanese universities presume that foreign faculty want to assimilate. Each institution and department have developed how non-Japanese will be incorporated, the process is not conveyed to the foreign faculty and is temporary. |

The themes are the lived stories of the foreign faculty in Japan.

### 5.4 Theme 1: Sub-community

The notion of sub-community was present in both the questionnaire and interviews. However, the foreign faculty had no clearly defined understanding of a sub-community. The meaning of sub-community was not apparent from either the questionnaire or interview data. However, when both sets of data were examined together, an undefined concept of sub-community emerged. Each sub-community reflected an abstract concept of membership; however, membership was not permanent nor explicitly expressed and was not inclusionary of any one person or group. Sub-communities were malleable while being considerably different in structure from institution to institution. Foreign faculty are divided in terms of whether they are tenured, non-tenured and part-time as illustrated in the following excerpts:[5]

> Foreign non-tenured teachers have no contact with tenured ones except for a meeting each semester with one foreign tenured faculty member (Respondent 57)

> We have few non-tenured foreigners scattered throughout the university…I hardly have any contact with them at all (Respondent 24)

Within the foreign faculty community, there is a correlation between tenured and non-tenured faculty, however the relationship is not mutually beneficial: it is top-down within the foreign faculty community and its membership is not defined. Foreign faculty, once tenured, attempt to distance themselves from non-tenured foreign faculty. It appears from data that tenured foreign faculty are concerned with how they see themselves in the community and how one is seen by the community, other faculty, departments, and the institution. This relationship has a bearing on the affiliation within the overall foreign faculty community and whether one may be in line for a tenured position or contract renewal, so they try to distance themselves from part-timers, or lower ranked faculty, in an effort to establish themselves as legitimate.

[5] All questionnaire and interview participant quotes/excerpts were transcribed verbatim, alterations for the sake of readability were kept to a minimum.

The interview data shows an unexplored side of the foreign faculty community. It is a place where one goes to find oneself or to learn about another culture while not knowing one may end up in a life of academia and a possible life in Japan:

> They (foreigners) came here like a hippy or some kind journey escaping somewhere and then found themselves. Then thought, 'Ya dude, I going to be a teacher here at a university.' (Lucas, tenured foreign faculty)

Unlike academic settings outside of Japan, foreign faculty in many cases enter academia with little experience or foundational training (Appleby, 2014; McVeigh, 2002; Nagatomo, 2016). David, a tenured faculty member with more than a decade of experience teaching at the university level, stated:

> Before coming to Japan. I was a video clerk. I worked in a video store. And I was getting a bachelor's degree.

This is an example of foreigners' starting point in terms of their becoming teachers; they come to Japan not intending to become academics, but individual circumstances lead them to teach at a university (Appleby, 2014). Furthermore, the assumption by Japanese employers is that foreigners will leave Japan voluntarily after a few years of experiencing life outside of their own country:

> The fact is originally the bulk of contract English teachers in Japan were expected to leave. When they come here they finish their year or two years in JET or as a contract teacher at a university and then they go home. (David, tenured foreign faculty)

This research suggests that at the national (macro) level, certain groups of foreign faculty were interconnected within the broader community of tenured and non-tenured foreign faculty. These communities are vertically arranged within each community by peers, colleagues, and institutional policies whether they be official or common practices in the workplace. Whitsed and Wright (2013) have found that there is a hegemonic structure that underpins Japanese universities' maintenance of a "dichotomous 'power relationship' such as 'us/them,' and

'in/out'" (p. 229). This power relationship was also found within the foreign faculty communities on a micro-level.

Foreign faculty on a local (micro) level were involved in non-academic communities before arriving in Japan. However, after entering tertiary education they sought or found likeminded communities within their institution. Moreover, these communities were intertwined and cooperated with each other but had no direct connection to the institution. At the same time, these communities offered a lifestyle that was not part of the domestic community of the local teaching faculty.

Foreign faculty communities on a macro- and micro-level arose, evolved and dissolved according to their learning of the community, in association with institutional events or personal development (Wenger, 1998). Whitsed and Volet (2013) explain that "integration of international academics (foreign faculty) is problematic" (p.731). Data from this research in Japan found that there was not only one group of foreign faculty but several communities which were divided further into sub-communities at a given time. However, the university viewed these communities as one group and not as separate communities, sub-communities or individual faculty members.

The communities were similar in both datasets; however, there were slight distinctions forming sub-communities. Viewed through a macro lens, there was a more protectionary view of who was in which sub-community as connected to one's title or position regardless of one's experience and educational background. In contrast, the local (micro) foreign faculty started their careers in similar ways and built a career that led to university teaching. Realizing that staying in Japan was not expected of them by the domestic faculty that recruited and hired them, foreign faculty formed communities along the lines of individual factors, such as family, nationality or

career. There were two foreign faculty sub-communities, however, membership was undefined and other factors affected membership as seen in the following section.

### 5.4.1 Subordinate Theme 1: Foreign faculty sub-communities

The foreign faculty community consisted of 118 respondents. When asked about their Japanese language ability, 26 percent self-revealed that they were able to understand spoken Japanese in a variety of situations (JLPT N1), while 39 percent understood Japanese used in everyday situations and in a variety of circumstances (JLPT N2). Meanwhile, 7 percent indicated that they only understood basic Japanese (JLPT N5). In contrast, when foreign faculty self-reported their written Japanese level, 22 percent could comprehend written Japanese in a variety of situations (JLPT N1), and 17 percent understood written Japanese used in everyday situations, and in a variety of circumstances (JLPT N2), and while 12 percent understood basic written Japanese (JLPT N5). Both Oliver[6] and David (tenured foreign faculty) expressed the need for Japanese language ability to gain tenure and favour with the administrative staff at the local HEIs.

Bergquist and Pawlak (2008) suggested that universities in one region with different identities and ideological orientations may end up resembling each other because the part-time (non-tenured) faculty members teaching in these diverse institutions are the same; they go on to state that they are the invisible faculty. This research found that two-thirds of the foreign faculty are non-tenured, and one-third are part-time faculty. Moreover, Yoshida (2002) reported that more than half of all Japanese universities hired foreign faculty that instruct in English on a part-time basis. Furthermore, 44.3 percent of respondents specified that they work at more than one

[6] Oliver's comments are typical of the majority of the participants

university, with 6.2 percent indicating that they work at four to six universities. The responses below are from foreign faculty; they feel they are disposable, overworked, and may not be considered part of the faculty.

> It is like we are different species or on a different planet. We are basically short-term tools like a chair. (Respondent 1)

> Non-tenured foreign faculty seem to be seen as expendable as temporary workers. (Respondent 42)

> I'm tenured, so I can only guess for most of them. Non-tenured faculty teach more classes (10 versus 7). They have limited term contracts. They earn roughly half the salary, and they cannot attend faculty meetings. (Respondent 4)

Foreign faculty consist of two groups: non-tenured and tenured, along with and a sub-community of the part-time foreign faculty. This situation has led to a perceived divide between tenured and non-tenured foreign faculty as stated by Respondent 4's comment from the questionnaire "They [non-tenured foreign faculty] actually are not part of the faculty".

Foreign faculty with tenure manoeuvred for a dominant role within their group while disassociating themselves from non-tenured foreign faculty. As foreign faculty gain more experience in Japanese universities and in the classroom, the older members become less alluring to a given university as teachers. Lucas, once tenured and presently non-tenured foreign faculty with almost two decades of teaching experience in Japan, remarked:

> Feeling like who was once like those young chimpanzees at the circus who are really popular. And as they get older they are put in a cage and put in the corner. They start to get white whiskers and people are afraid of them. They are not what they used to be. I feel like that. And that's not fair.

The above statement illustrates that there is little or no loyalty to a given foreign faculty member on the part of the university or within the foreign faculty community. There is not one community but several communities within communities (Wenger, 1998) that at times work together but which can also work against each other. According to Niyubahwe's et al. (2013)

study, when immigrant teachers were employed, they were confined to unreliable teaching positions without job security even during a teacher shortage. Additionally, it appears that their competencies were continually tested in order for them to gain acceptance as bona fide teachers. This situation was exemplified by Lucas in the above quote where extensive experience at Japanese universities may not lead to a fruitful academic position.

Three distinct groups of foreign faculty emerged with specific details, background, and reasons for residing in Japan: tenured, non-tenured, and part-time foreign faculty along with two sub-communities. Two-thirds of foreign faculty were non-tenured in this study. However, the perception from within Japan is typified by a tenured faculty member who stated "somehow it seems that the assumption is being made that foreign faculty = non-tenured, which is often true but not necessarily" (e-mail correspondence with a tenured foreign faculty). As foreign faculty enter one community (non-tenured) and move on to the next community (tenured), there is a lack of commitment to the previous group or community. This aspect of gaining tenure or being tenured was identified by several respondents to the questionnaire:

> We have a few non-tenured foreigners scattered throughout the university, … I hardly have any contact with them at all. (Respondent 24)

> Foreign non-tenured teachers have no contact with tenured ones except for a meeting each semester with one foreign tenured faculty member. (Respondent 33)

> I have very little contact with such employees (non-tenured foreign faculty) at university X. (E-mail correspondence with a tenured foreign faculty with over 35 years teaching experience in Japan)

These quotes offered by tenured foreign faculty show a lack of coherence and solidarity within the foreign faculty community. This aspect has been overlooked in previous studies on non-tenured foreign faculty English teachers, such as in Whitsed (2011), in Brotherhood's et al. (2020) study on junior international faculty, and in the framework for successful integration

(Gress & IIon, 2009). This study examined the internal cooperation or lack of cooperation within the foreign faculty community. The following section examines this dynamic.

#### 5.4.1a Foreign faculty internal cooperation

Within ACU, there is some limited internal cooperation between tenured and non-tenured foreign faculty, which is in contrast to responses from the questionnaire above. There are several orientation days for new faculty, internal training, textbook publisher seminars and social events. However, Noah (tenured faculty) remarked that "I was not expecting the amount of people management…the amount of human relationship management." This statement shows administration and faculty have to be aware that there is a need to teach non-Japanese speaking faculty on how institutions in Japan operate. New and inexperienced foreign faculty lack the knowledge to work effectively within the confines of the Japanese university system. Furthermore, mentoring is required, since most new teachers lack experience working outside of the classroom. As Noah remarked "It is mostly to do with the way things are done at our university. Not teaching skills because they are hired because of their teaching skills. However, it is the daily administrative life."

As Oliver explains, "foreign faculty need to take action to build cooperation within the department and institution. One needs to evaluate the situation you are put in and make adjustments to that situation". In this case, a tenured foreign faculty member was isolated from the other members of the foreign non-tenured faculty. As a result, Oliver made a conscious decision to move into or spend time in the non-tenured faculty work area:

> Not a place that was conducive to collaboration [tenured foreign faculty office/work area] or socializing. So, one of the things I did after working two or three weeks at that institution was to leave and go into the part-timer's teacher's room. And I found that it was a much better place, [a] much more comfortable place and you could end up

> speaking to people that were not just English teachers but teachers of other languages and other subjects.

Oliver believed in the need for tenured and non-tenured foreign faculty to work together for the benefit of the institution and not to conform to the status quo. Moreover, he was willing to see past his tenured position and see foreign faculty as one community working to improve their position within the institution. Some of Oliver's motivation can be explained by examining foreign faculty attributes and traits as discussed in Section 5.4.1b.

Foreign faculty expressed the lack of internal cooperation between communities of faculty members and the university administration at different levels. On a superficial level, there is cooperation within the foreign faculty community. However, the data showed that there is not the level of cooperation present that would allow for the integration of non-Japanese faculty within the faculty communities at the departmental or institutional level. Gress and IIon's (2009) study of the South Korean university system reflected that "faculty members need to be integrated into the local expectation and practices" (p.189). However, mentoring or supervision of foreign faculty new to tertiary teaching or new to the institution was lacking in this study. Data from the questionnaire showed that 46 percent of respondents indicated that mentoring of new faculty members does not take place on a regular basis; 40 percent agreed that the university does not help in the integration of foreign faculty into the department or institution; and 35 percent stated that Japanese universities do not assist in faculty integration into Japanese society. Furthermore, Gress and IIon (2009) suggest that "without guidance, all participants can be caught in a situation where change is expected but not rewarded" (p.190). One example of where further qualification may be unrewarded is when faculty members earn terminal degrees, such as a PhD or EdD. Only 24 percent of foreign faculty had their terminal degree at the time of this research.

The following excerpt from David's interview illustrates the lack of guidance and internal cooperation from domestic staff that foreign faculty face when attempting to gain further qualifications and thereby contribute more effectively to their institution and profession. As David, (tenured foreign faculty) observed:

> One office lady in particular knew that I was using some classes for an entire year to collect data to then put together a questionnaire to use for my dissertation, and she deliberately changed my classes. She just changed them. She took away the classes I was teaching, knowing it would disrupt my dissertation. And then my attempts to get the classes back resulted in one of the professors who liked me, and we got along well, he told her give him his classes back. But by then she had made the schedule for everyone and so she knew that if she put the classes back it would disrupt the other teacher schedules. And she knew that. So, she did that and suddenly I had seven or eight teachers angry at me for disrupting their schedules.

The above quotation suggests a lack of institutional knowledge and understanding of the foreign faculty community where internal processes and notifications may be required to proceed with research. However, within the institution, the multifaceted process of obtaining permission is culturally bound within the institution while shaped by local judgement. Some may consider the above example to be racially motivated in nature. Doi (1971, 2014) attempts to explain Japanese thinking, arguing that "Scholars have put forward many different theories concerning the ways of the Japanese, but most agree in the long run that, compared with the thought in the West, it is not logical but intuitive" (p.76). In contrast, the 'office lady' lack certain cultural knowledge, and this illustrates the lack of cultural awareness within the institution regarding how foreign faculty conduct research and the role of foreign faculty within the university. Alternatively, it is possible that the above situation was a deliberate act on the part of this particular office staff member. Data suggests that the lack of contact between foreign faculty and administration was an area that needs improvement. The questionnaire revealed that 35 percent of respondents stated that university leadership does not seek their input, thereby affecting their

ability to perform as members of the foreign faculty community. Furthermore, 24 percent strongly agree or partly agree that non-tenured foreign faculty are an essential part of the university. Schlueter and Scheepers (2010) suggest that providing contact opportunities between a member of alternative groups may induce more favourable attitudes towards different groups within the same institution. However, when there is a concerted effort on one or both parties, cooperation can be seen.

#### 5.4.1b Foreign faculty attributes, traits

Foreign faculty have a self-importance persona when dealing with each other and the domestic staff on a professional basis, interacting with other foreign faculty is seen as competition in various situations within the department. The following account illustrates this point. Mia (non-tenured foreign faculty) explains:

> Quite often they are about the differences we see between how teacher teach and what actually takes place; I walk past a classroom where half the students were asleep or those kinds of things. These seems to be a consensus between the non-tenured foreign staff about how they [tenured faculty] teach and so when [non-tenured faculty] see examples counter to that they bring it up and they talk about it."

In addition, it was observed that –

> Non-tenured foreign faculty can show that there are different ways of doing the same thing and to help Japanese staff and faculty move beyond the stereotypes that some may hold towards those of a different culture. Essentially, non-tenured foreign faculty can help all stakeholders appreciate the respect the differences among all faculty whether they are Japanese or foreign. (Respondent 19)

The above quotations demonstrate that domestic and foreign faculty see themselves as adversaries while offering examples of how everyday routines should be conducted in relation to domestic norms or even within the systems put in place by the university.

Another aspect of foreign faculty is the importance of lifestyle while living in Japan. As Lucas, a foreign faculty member with over a decade of university-level experience teaching at the university level at several institutions, illustrates:

> They [foreign faculty] don't seem to be interested in their classes. They are looking forward to the next break. And I was talking to a teacher at University X not so long ago, and they were saying that they were doing the same lessons for twenty years, and almost proud, and I did not know how to react and say to them.

Lucas explains that the foreign faculty he has witnessed over a decade of teaching at various universities in Japan, want to keep their non-Japanese lifestyle while employed in Japan. In a further example, Oliver states:

> [Foreign] faculty come, hang up their coat, they teach their classes, go back to the room pick up their coat and they are off. There is no other interaction with their students then the time they are teaching. Often times in those situations those faculty are only interacting with their own students and maybe not that much."

This situation illuminates how foreign faculty are perceived as behaving with respect to their interest in interacting (or not) at a Japanese university on a day-to-day basis. They do the job for the benefits of living a non-typical lifestyle while residing in Japan; for example, they have only thirty teaching weeks, along with complete autonomy in the classroom, and longer than average holidays compared to other Japanese workers, while functioning in a non-Japanese environment that allows them to interact with other foreigners on a daily basis.

The following excerpts illustrate how foreign faculty see themselves, how they view each other, and how they see themselves being viewed by the university. These are the untold perspective of the lived experiences as related by the foreign faculty. They explain different aspects of the daily events that take place at a Japanese university with varying levels of academic integrity within the foreign faculty community.

> Exposure to the foreign faculty member the non-Japanese faculty member, but issues of identity, issues of perceptions of identity, are pretty significant, I think. And I think that,

> in terms of working conditions and in terms of quality of experience, I think that non-native, non-Japanese faculty members enjoy, I think they enjoy the freedom from certain responsibilities that maybe Japanese non-tenured faculty might have to do. I think that there are practical issues of disproportionate pay. I think that non-Japanese faculty, particularly language teachers, tend to be paid higher wages, enjoy more benefits, more time off than their Japanese counter parts. On the other hand, I also mentioned that their career path may be different. There may be no expectation. Non-Japanese faculty [might] be seeking a career path or would be even considered to be on a career, and this is particularly to do with the working conditions the contract conditions. [This] also has to do with ones' status at the university, one's title and, as you know, part-time teachers de facto have enjoyed a quasi-tenure in Japan. (Oliver, tenured foreign faculty)

Oliver openly discusses the situation that non-tenured foreign faculty find themselves in; one of with superiority status and a higher pay scale compared to the domestic faculty with the same contract conditions. He goes on to state that part-time foreign faculty are privileged to have a *de facto* tenured status within the foreign faculty community. However, Oliver also suggests that such non-tenured foreign faculty will not be able to gain tenure because their chosen career path will not lead to tenure but a quasi-tenure position at a given university.

A further examination of the data suggests that at the centre of many of the narratives was the underlying notion of one's own culture, formal education and the path that one took to gain access to tertiary teaching in Japan. The following are accounts of foreign faculty relating their stories regarding their perceived importance to the university, and implying their imported values and standards are necessary for the domestic institution to internationalize based on non-Japanese factors that include culture, historical practice and tradition:

> The aim is for foreign faculty members to transmit their culture as well as their native language to students who take their classes." (Respondent 79)

> If the university could get rid of us they would, but that would make them the only major university in this part of Japan that did not have 'foreign teachers' and they are more concerned about what potential students think than whether or not they are actually international. In other words, we are a necessary evil because they do not want students going to a different university because there are no 'natives' at this one." (Respondent 11)

> We are the foot soldiers. We teach the majority of the classes and we make up the majority of the students' international experiences at the university. (Respondent 30)

The above quotes show the role that foreign faculty see themselves in, including how they are necessary to attract students and to play a critical part of the university's teaching operations.

Foreign faculty bring with them western traits and attributes that may conflict with Japanese local norms. In other words, the Japanese have a specific way of doing things that is institutionally and culturally based (Davies & Ikeno, 2002; De Mente, 2003). For example, foreign faculty explain matters relating to classroom instruction or administrative duties explicitly whereas Japanese faculty and staff do so implicitly while performing their duties. The responses below indicate that foreign faculty differ from domestic faculty in numerous ways. These foreign faculty attributes and traits are what makes them foreign, as well as making them more internationally-minded than the local faculty.

> In meetings with the *center-cho* [department/faculty head] we have literally been told that we are not equal members of the faculty." (Respondent 6)

> In every way, so much so it is like we are different species or on a different planet. We are basically short-term tools like a chair. (Respondent 1)

Volet and Tan-Quigley (1999) found differences related to culturally-based local norms and perceptions in an Australian context. These influenced the understanding of everyday behaviours displayed that subsequently changed the day-to-day interaction of the actors involved, thereby negatively reinforcing stereotypes. In addition, Gahungu (2011) has found that foreign-born and foreign-educated academics bring with them the disadvantage of not only being born and raised in another culture but also exhibit limited knowledge of the local HE system. Furthermore, Collins (2008) stated that it can be difficult for foreign-born faculty to relate to local students or the institutional context. The above influences, features and characteristics were

present within the foreign faculty at the macro and micro-level. In relation to their Japanese institutions, foreign faculty inevitably bring with them their lived experiences.

Therefore, foreign faculty attributes and traits influence which communities they are able or willing to join, further shaping their ability to integrate into that community. This was shown in the development of themes where participants indicated behavioural differences amongst foreign faculty, differences dependent on one's length of time in Japan. This directly related to Japanese cultural knowledge, which also appeared in the initial themes, as explained in the following section.

#### 5.4.1c Foreign Faculty's lack of domestic cultural knowledge

The following statements show there is evidence that foreign faculty – both tenured and non-tenured – show indications of self-importance, self-need, and a 'me first' mentality, which leads to indolent practices both within the classroom and in relation to their administrative duties within their university. The following quotes show the reality of the situation:

> They [foreign faculty] don't seem to be interested in their classes. They are looking forward to the next break. (Lucas, tenured faculty)

> Non-tenured faculty enjoy the flexibility and freedom or their status – it may fit their lives better**.** (Respondent 29)

These statements show that there is a need to examine the function that foreign faculty think they are performing over the role that they should be performing within their communities and university. Also, there is a need to explore the purpose of foreign faculty alongside examining their motives in terms of why they have chosen to teach in Japan and their reasons to stay in Japan.

The following statements illustrates the foreign faculty's perspectives on what is transpiring within Japanese universities currently and the possible distortion caused by their lack of local language ability, which has resulted in the sharing of misinformation amongst themselves and their communities:

> Japanese or language proficient foreign faculty are privilege to more information and considered easier to work with and are included in more administrative work. (Respondent 3)

> Japanese institutions educate Japanese students … by and large even with the demographics being what they are Japanese institutions are almost exclusively targeting their education towards Japanese. (Oliver, tenured faculty)

Fischer, Schimmel, and Stellman, (2007), reflected this dynamic that found foreign-born faculty will in time learn to ignore embarrassment relating to their lack of a local language ability and their slowness to understand casual communications. However, the implications are more dangerous when one's 'foreignness' impacts on promotions, thus depriving foreign faculty of opportunities to participate in university-wide committees, research groups, and management positions, even though they have documented expertise.

This study is consistent with Bloomgarden and O'Meara's (2007) research on faculty engagement, whereby possible integration is dependent on individual and environmental factors, including the nature of their discipline, research, courses taught, community engagement and work/family life balance. This research has identified similar findings albeit with a greater emphasis on community engagement and a perceived lack of institutional involvement. Moreover, foreign faculty saw themselves as props for the university or devices used to showcase the university itself. The following quotes demonstrate this point:

> Publicity. We [non-tenured faculty] aren't actually valued but are used as 'props' to stimulate enrolment. Our ideas and input don't matter to the tenured faculty. We have no voice. (Respondent 67)

> We are just window dressing used to make the university look good. (Respondent 13)

When examining the foreign faculty community, data suggested that more than one community exists; membership is granted by the foreign faculty community to all non-Japanese faculty, however, in reality this community in made up of several smaller communities. Membership is complex and involves factors that include one's position at the university, local language ability and cultural knowledge, and personality traits. In addition, this community is seen as one community by the university and domestic faculty. This phenomenon can be explored further though an examination of communities of practice in the following sections.

#### 5.5.1d Non-tenured foreign faculty sub-community

As a foreigner coming to Japan to teach at a conversation school with little or no actual teaching experience, Mason's situation is familiar. However, Mason was able to gain employment at the university level. He began his career as a high school teacher and then as a Japanese university lecturer immediately after completing his Master's degree. This situation is typical in this data set: young non-Japanese come to Japan without the intent of staying long-term and then, as circumstances change, decide to extend their stay. Mason cited several reasons for wanting to teach at the university level.

> Having more independence [teaching at a university] because I was teaching as an ALT for many years. Having complete independence of, choice of a textbook, choice of materials. Developing myself was rewarding.

This sub-community experiences new freedoms which they were not able to have in the previous career: they gain autonomy in the classroom and the ability to improve themselves professionally and personally but within the confines of this community.

This community is made up of foreign faculty with limited university teaching experience, however, there was a willingness to share experiences and learned knowledge within this sub-community. CoP is a tool that helps individuals to both understand the explicit and implicit rules of their profession while developing skills within one's organization through mentors who are willing to share their expertise and experience (Monaghan, 2011). Mason experienced this situation whereby other expatriates helped him work in the university system. Appleby (2014) has found that Japanese universities regularly recruit faculty through personal connections and recommendations: "It is all about knowing people and having contacts" (p. 787). This example explains, in part, how the foreigners with little or no tertiary teaching experience can quickly find university teaching opportunities in Japan. However, this entry into university teaching for non-tenured foreign faculty is temporary because of the limited contracts available (5-10 years), (see chapter 2 for conditions and common practices). As David (tenured foreign faculty) explains, non-tenured foreign faculty are not an essential part of the university:

> By their very nature, they're not [an essential part of the university community]. I am speaking in terms of their limited contracts…other group that is transient [non-tenured foreign faculty]. And so, by their very nature they are not part of it [the university]. These people are contract positions they are going to leave soon. Part-timers are working [at] lots of other places [universities and other institutions]…they don't have the loyalty. They don't have the contract. They don't have the importance to be recognized like that. For right or wrong. …but they are contributing a lot here [at universities]. And I wish their contracts were longer. So generally speaking, no, I don't think they are an essential part of the university community.

This situation may not be different from universities in the US, Australia or the UK; university casualization continues to be a global issue in academia (Ivancheva, 2020b; Nettelbeck, Hajek, & Woods, 2012). However, these foreign faculty in Japan without continuous employment, unlike those in western countries, cannot maintain their work visa, and this means they may find it necessary to leave the county due to financial reasons, lack of medical coverage, or the inability to renew their visa. In Japan, having a valid work visa is tied to having health

care, purchasing property, banking, and accessing social assistance programs. These issues differ from those working in their own country who may find work more proficiently in fields other than HE in their home country.

In the above statement, David focuses on the reality of life as non-tenured foreign faculty; they are transient, temporary, and have little or no standing at their institutions. Appleby (2014) reports that male teachers at conversation schools were prevented from acquiring professional and academic status; however, these individuals had the opportunity to move into the Japanese university system as teachers with minimum qualifications, thereby gaining more permanency and extended contracts.[7] It is important for the university to have a consistent teaching faculty with institutional knowledge, and for the foreign faculty to contribute to their intuition over a significant period of time. Moreover, Appleby (2014) further suggests that "however illusory [this] allows them to construct and perform a higher status professional identity" (p. 783). For example, participants may experience increased self-efficacy, higher self-esteem, and less marginalization in the larger community" (p. 74). This could be one reason, alongside the opportunity to join the community of foreign faculty, to move into university teaching for non-Japanese even though the position is temporary.

### 5.5 Sub -community: Naming, Names and Characteristics

An aspect of Wenger's (1998) social theory of learning describes society as a way to talk about social configurations in which our daily lives are described as worth pursuing, and our involvement is recognized as familiar. In addition, Wenger (1998) notes that group practice is an integral part of our everyday lives. These practices are casual and ubiquitous and rarely come

[7] Conversation school contracts are for one year compared to university contracts that are typically last 5-10years.

into focus directly, but they are also very recognizable for the same reason. This is only accessible to individuals within that community.

Wenger (1998) defines organizations as social in nature that put themselves together through interactions; they can do what they do, understand what they know, and learn what they learn. Thus, CoP is central to the competence of an organization and to the evolution of that competence. Learning represents our profoundly social existence as human beings capable of understanding our involvement in the world through our living and living experiences, along with the belief that learning is, in its essence, a fundamentally social phenomenon (Wenger, 1998). This is basically non-tenured foreign faculty in Japan. They grew up outside of Japan and had jobs or careers in their home countries before coming to Japan. This diverse community of non-Japanese actors has been brought together by jobs requiring a specific set of skills and training but limited prior educational work experience at the university level (see Appleby, 2014; Eades, Goodman, & Hada, 2005; McVeigh, 2002; Nagatomo, 2016; Wadden & Hale, 2019).

However, this group possesses the ability to learn new skills and adapt to unfamiliar environments. Wenger (1998) argues that diversity and partiality makes a CoP mutually engaging. In addition, Rhoads and Hu (2012) state that academic culture intersects with the definition of organizations as communities in meaningful ways, suggesting that organizations frequently disclose particular behavioural trends aligned with generally recognized norms, beliefs, and attitudes. David, with 16 years of teaching experience at the tertiary level in Japan at several institutions and a variety of positions explains:

> I think that the foreign faculty constitute … see, I use the term too. Foreign faculty – the non-native Japanese teachers at every university that I have taught at – they are a tiny minority compared to all the other teachers. And they stand out. And they, you know, people have an expectation that they will be essentially different. And so that makes people want to stick a special name on them, you know. I think it is confusing when you have foreign faculty who do not act noticeably different than a non-foreign faculty. I

> think that it is kind of mentally tough to process. And it is more comfortable maybe to say foreign faculty. (David, tenured foreign faculty)

This confusion between how teachers see themselves and how they are seen by students, domestic faculty, and the university can be challenging for foreign faculty. Simon-Maeda (2004) states that teachers' professional identities evolve through a network involving macro-level sociocultural environments and ongoing private and public micro-level experiences within and outside the classroom. The ramifications of the last point are crucial for foreign faculty, whether tenured or non-tenured, as well as for their domestic counterparts. They must struggle with conflicts between their idiosyncratic backgrounds, local circumstances, customs, and culture; but they must also contend with institutional ideologies and practices that do not allow for non-Japanese faculty to participate fully in Japanese HE at a macro-level and at a micro-level. As David stated above, this is possibly a form of typecasting of non-Japanese faculty that can be found in many institutions' domestic communities. Kriner, Coffma, Adkisson, Putman and Monaghan (2015) suggest that "identities shifted and self-efficacy increased among all the participants in the CoP" (p. 73); however, findings from this research suggest that there were several communities within communities or sub-communities among the foreign faculty.

The data revealed that sub-communities are interwoven in the non-tenured foreign faculty group; however, they were not known at the time the literature review for this thesis was written. Designations like international faculty (Huang, 2017; 2018b) and foreign faculty (Huang, 2018a; Brown, 2018) are established in the literature. However, descriptions like junior international faculty (Brotherhood et al., (2020) and adjunct foreign English-language teacher (Whitsed & Wright, 2011) are not standard terms used to describe foreign faculty in Japan. Moreover, these terms do not fully explain the participants of this research. This thesis has coined two descriptive terms that better fully define the participates as illustrated in (Table 5.6). The first sub-

community is permanent non-tenure track foreign faculty (PNTTFF) and the second sub-community is domestically trained tenured foreign faculty (DTTFF)

### 5.5.1 The sub-communities

Permanent Non-Tenure Track Foreign Faculty (PNTTFF) came to Japan other than as an academic; many came as English teachers, assistant language teachers (ALT) or on the JET program, and some came as tourists. They did not plan to stay in Japan long-term; one to three years was the initial plan and then return home. Then their situation changed. They now plan to remain in Japan indefinitely; many have married Japanese, which entitles them to a spousal visa, and speak enough Japanese to live in Japan comfortably. Most participants indicated that they like something about Japan; the culture, safety, living standards, medical care, cost of living and/or lifestyle.

This sub-community completed a teaching certificate and/or a Master's degree after arriving in Japan for the sole purpose of obtaining a teaching position at a university. They are not international faulty, foreign faculty or expatriate faculty. They do not see themselves as academics nor as English teachers; they are not the same as academics but teach content-based courses. Also, it is necessary for this sub-community to change HEIs every three to five years. They believe that the university does not see them as a candidate for tenure but as temporary teaching staff.

The Domestically Trained Tenured Foreign Faculty (DTTFF) sub-community has left the PNTTFF to become part of the tenured foreign faculty but have different characteristics than foreign faculty or international faculty. Similar to PNTTFF, the differences are that this sub-

community has no intrinsic interest in Japanese culture, language, or local community (in many cases, only have enough Japanese to perform duties at the university). However, they choose to stay in Japan for personal, economic and parental reasons. Other factors include the way of life, social status among locals and ex-pats, financial security and medical benefits that would not be available to them in their home country for personal, individual, and socioeconomic reasons.

This group has similar academic roles with responsibilities to tenured domestic faculty. The responsibilities are comparable, but not exactly the same as the duties compared to tenured faculty at some UK, US and Canadian universities. For example, DTTFF serve on the library committee, act as a thesis supervisor for undergraduate students, conduct professional development training for part-time faculty, and attend international conferences in their home counties to conduct private businesses or attend to a family matter. There is a tendency for DTTFF to distance themselves from non-tenured foreign faculty, international faculty, and visiting faculty. This is an area that requires more research to seek out causes and reasons for this behaviour.

**Table 5.4** Sub -community Names and Characteristics

| Sub-community names | Permanent Non-tenure Track Foreign Faculty (PNTTFF) | Domestically Trained Tenured Foreign Faculty (DTTFF) |
|---|---|---|
| **Characteristics** | -dissimilar to academics in the West<br>-speak enough Japanese to live in Japan comfortably<br>-did not plan to stay in Japan long term 1-3 years | -dissimilar to academics in the West<br>-speak/write enough Japanese to work in a Japanese university<br>-did not plan to stay in Japan long term 1-3 years |
| **Original Reason for coming to Japan** | -came to Japan as an English teacher (ALT), part of the JET [8]<br>-as a student or tourist<br>-came to Japan other than as an academic | -came to Japan as an English teacher (ALT), part of the JET<br>-as a student or tourist<br>-came to Japan other than as an academic |
| **Length of time in Japan** | -has lived in Japan for 5-10 years | -has lived in Japan for over 10 years |
| **Reason (s) for staying in Japan** | -like something about Japan (culture, safely, living and medical standards, cost of living, lifestyle)<br>-in many situations they are married to a Japanese citizen<br>-have a family<br>-involved in a local cultural activity or in the local community | -like something about Japan (culture, safely, living and medical standards, cost of living, lifestyle)<br>-in many situations they are married to a Japanese citizen<br>-have a family |
| **Academic Credential** | -holds a teaching certificate<br>-earned a Master's degree after arriving in Japan<br>-have few publications; mostly in-house journals<br>-conducts no research | -holds a teaching certificate<br>-earned a Master's and a PhD or EdD degree after arranging in Japan<br>-have publications; mostly domestic journals<br>-conducts little or no research |
| **PNTTFF and DTTFF see themselves as** | -not as an English teacher<br>-some see themselves as academics<br>-teacher of content-based courses | -not as an English teacher<br>-some see themselves as academics<br>-teacher of content-based courses |
| **How PNTTFF AND DTTFF see themselves as Employees of a university** | -not candidates for tenure<br>-tools for internationalization<br>-temporary teaching or faculty members | -tools for internationalization<br>-temporary teaching or faculty members |
| **PNTTFF and DTTFF are not** | -international faculty<br>-foreign faculty<br>-expatriate faculty | -international faculty<br>-foreign faculty<br>-expatriate faculty |

[8] The Japan Exchange and Teaching Program (JET)

### 5.6 Theme 2: Internationalization

Internationalization emerged as one of the key themes in the foreign faculty's lived lives, with 35.5 percent responding that non-tenured foreign faculty contribute to the internationalization of universities while 37.8 percent agreed that non-tenured foreign faculty are needed to internationalize Japanese universities. At a national (macro) level, internationalization was directly related to bringing non-Japanese culture into the classroom, as well as conferring prestige status to the university through the presence of foreign faculty on campus. In contrast, on a local (micro) level, internationalization was seen as contributing to entering university teaching as a means to remain in Japan and become part of the local internationalization of tertiary education. Therefore, at the micro-level the willingness to learn the craft of teaching at a Japanese university and to understanding the Japanese student community was their primary focus. Moreover, conceptions of internationalization differed among individual foreign faculty, participants from ACU, and online participants and their universities to Altbach and Knight's (2007) definition.

> Internationalization includes the policies and practices undertaken by academic systems and institutions—and even individuals—to cope with the global academic environment. The motivations for internationalization include commercial advantage, knowledge and language acquisition, enhancing the curriculum with international content (p.290).

Teichler (1999, as cited in Yonezawa, 2011) proposed a typology for the internationalization of HE in an Asian Pacific context: "'Would be internationalization': a higher education system, which hopes to be international, but lacks enough resources, and needs external help" alongside "'internationalization for survival': a higher education system which is required to be internationalized for the survival of the nation or society" (p. 204) (see Chapter 2 for definitions of internationalization). The following are interpretations of what

internationalization is to some Japanese universities and ACU: Hamid, Nguyen, and Baldauf (2013) suggest that, Japanese internationalization has a unique link to the growth of students' skills and willingness to communicate with other countries to support Japan and Japanese in the world while Horie (2002) argues that Japanese internationalization (*kokusaika*) shows little interest in the rights of non-Japanese and ethnic minorities within Japan. Moreover, *kokusaika* is less about rising above cultural barriers and more about guarding them.

Rose and McKinley (2018) found through their examination of TGUP documents that the historical strategy of *Kokusaika* was aimed at internationalizing Japanese culture and retaining Japanese nationalism in the 1980s. Today, according to Rose and McKinley, this feeling is still genuine among some actors. Therefore, this study has shown that foreign faculty are attempting internationalization within the confines of what Japanese universities consider internationalization, notwithstanding external factors. The Japanese interpretation of internationalisation will be examined in the following section.

### 5.6.1 Japan's internationalisation

The following examples from foreign faculty members offer their insight into how internationalization is being displayed for the domestic student audience at their universities alongside attempts to appease MEXT targets while communicating the appearance of internationalisation, thereby revealing what is occurring at their universities today.

> My university is a super global university, and my department has 20 contracted teachers who make a significant contribution in terms of their teaching. We offer a range of courses that gives students various opportunities to become 'global citizens'. (Respondent 66)

> To continue an English Language Program that appears to be the remnants of a previously ambitious department that saw internationalization as a way forward for their

> students. The program continues to exist because it is a relatively effective English language program and MEXT offers generous funding. (Respondent 17)
>
> I am tenured at one of the global universities. Foreigners are the only way internationalization will happen. However, there is too much bias from Japanese, yet they think they are not biased. It will be a long time before that can change. Expectations of complete assimilation get in the way (Respondent 24)

These accounts highlight the various components that are working towards a non-Japanese view of internationalization, which supports Altbach and Knight's (2007) definition. According to Rose and McKinley (2018), this situation has been in existence since the 1980s, the Japanese view that limits internationalization, however, foreign faculty are contributing to the internationalization of their universities in their own individual ways.

The following excerpts illustrate how a group of foreign faculty use their positions, a voice within their university, and their non-Japaneseness to influence international thinking or show by example specific characteristics of internationalization, which are not patriotic views of the latter (Horie, 2002). Also, foreign faculty have been given a unique opportunity to bridge how Japanese students see the outside world and the importance of different internationalization views as demonstrated by a group of foreign faculty hired by HEIs:

> Diversity is a value in itself. It helps people come up with a wider range of solutions to problems. It can reduce toxic prejudices like sexism, racism, and homophobia in an era of globalization (Respondent 2)
>
> I think our role as non-tenured faculty is basically to provide a kind of bridge between the Japanese students and the cultures of the language they are learning. So, of course, to improve their English but, more than that, it is to prepare them for using that English and how they will use it in the future. (Mia, non-tenured foreign faculty)
>
> Language educators, particularly English teachers, are a bit of a case apart, and I think those are the vast majority of non-Japanese faculty working in tertiary institutions [in Japan]. I think they suffer from the marginalization from their role, but they also suffer from, and benefit tremendously from, their role. Both of those factors would derive from them being considered as a case apart. But I think language faculty in particular …

> fulfilling a more of a general education function, exposure to the foreign faculty member the non-Japanese faculty member. But issues of identity, issues of perceptions of identity, are pretty significant, I think, and I think that in terms of working conditions and in terms of quality of experience. (Oliver, tenured foreign faculty)

The foreign faculty both tenured and non-tenured have a unique influence within the university that needs to be handled with integrity in order to make an appropriate case for an inclusive meaning of internationalization that all actors can contribute to. Whitsed and Volet (2011) state that adjunct teachers "can be regarded as outsiders who are partially inside given their situatedness" while "Their experiences of internationalization may reveal a private/hidden reality not normally open to public scrutiny and, as such, warrants attention" (p. 159).

O'Hare (2009) reports that the contributions and effectiveness of (foreign) faculty in advancing international awareness and multiculturalism on campuses can be grouped into three areas:

1. Foreign -born faculty influence and shape future generations of leaders through teaching and mentoring;
2. Foreign-born faculty bring international perspective into their research and often establish long-lasting connections between their home country and their new home abroad; and
3. Foreign-born faculty share their knowledge and experience with the wider campus community and the community at large.

The above offers some insight into how internationalization is being projected by the Japanese university, namely to attract Japanese university students while complying to MEXT requirements, and more importantly, communicating the appearance of internationalization to domestic actors; thereby, promoting the Japanese version of internationalisation. The following section will address the rationale for this.

#### 5.6.1a Local interpretations of internalization

The following example comes from individual participants rationalizing foreign faculty's need to internationalize their universities according to local community desires at their HEIs.

This following is an authentic account of an example that may sound unrealistic or even imagined, but reflects how one individual foreign faculty saw how they are being used to internationalize a particular university in Japan:

> The University built a new building for language classes right by the main gate. They put in large windows in the common office room for foreign teachers with no blinds, so as students walk by they can look in the window and see the foreigners. We were literally told this was the reason that we could not have blinds on the windows. They wanted the students to be able to see the foreigners, like in a zoo. Our job was to make the university look like it was international. (Respondent 13)

Chang (2007) has found that the degree of naiveté associated with genuine attempts to counter racial inequality and racism is the artificial pursuit of changing how race is experienced on campus, further arguing that most institutions indiscriminately combine anti-racist attempts with other institutional agendas, failing to analyse their effects on each other.

The following examples illustrate how these foreign faculty are being utilised as agents in the Japanese concept of internationalization at their institution:

> Foreign faculty [are] mainly to conduct the classes communicatively, to evaluate the students regularly, also, report on the students' progress. (Liam, non-tenured foreign faculty)

> Foreign faculty have seen more sort of as visiting faculty rather than tenured faculty candidates. (Oliver, tenured foreign faculty)

This environment is one way of creating a domestic version of internationalization at local universities. This limits the incorporation of foreign faculty into the university system by not granting them academic powers of research and control of their classroom environment.

These foreign faculty are seen as instructors and not as academics by the institution and are not considered permanent fixtures of the university as illustrated above. The data shows many of them are instructors and not academics: they do not have the credentials nor engage in what might be considered central to an academic career, such as research, publication, and graduate students' supervision. However, some foreign faculty participants do consider themselves academics, and others do have the credentials to back it up as was evident in the online data.

#### 5.6.1b Japanese governmental policy

The Global 30 Project (2009-2014) was intended to promote Japanese universities as globally-orientated and internationally competitive (Ishikawa, 2011; MEXT, n.d.), thereby increasing the number of international students studying in Japan (Rose & McKinley, 2018). The most recent initiative of MEXT 'Top Global University Project' (TGUP 2014-2023) is intended to increase the number of international students, as well as increase the number of international faculty or foreign-trained faculty. These government initiatives directly influence universities and the number of foreign faculty employed at institutions in Japan, which currently stands at just over 4 percent compared to 40 percent at Oxford University (Mock et al., 2016). However, over the last decade, these initiatives have had little effect at the micro-level, according to participants in this study.

The data from the questionnaire shows that 12 percent agreed that MEXT contributes to the internationalization of Japanese universities; but, while, unexpectedly, 17 percent were unfamiliar with MEXT policies. Moreover, 27 percent were unfamiliar with the Global 30 project and 31 percent were not familiar with the Top Global University Project. This data shows

the lack of interest by foreign faculty's or the lack of communication by universities regarding governmental policy. In addition, the lack of interest in how outside actors, including MEXT, can affect individual institutions, and how these policies influence the classroom and the quality of education are also evident. This condition demonstrates further that foreign faculty are concerned about institutional policies and not governmental policies (meso) that affect their universities. These findings further illustrate that foreign faculty individually are concerned about their classroom in comparison to being engaged with institutional or governmental policy.

According to Goodman (2016), government programmes such as the Global 30, and TGUP, have been characterised as government-directed, top-down projects designed to meet national targets. Goodman (2016) suggests "there are some inherently conservative forces in Japanese society, which makes internationalization problematic" (p. viii). One factor that makes Japanese universities' internationalization challenging is that foreign faculty are unaware of the programmes themselves and have little direct or indirect information regarding government policy.

#### 5.6.1c Japanese government: Foreign faculty

David (tenured foreign faculty) relates the current situation concerning government initiatives and how the foreign faculty see these policies at the micro-level regarding how they affect the university. At the macro-level, approximately 30 percent of respondents were unaware of MEXT's policies. Moreover, less than 3 percent agreed with current MEXT policies concerning the internationalization of universities in Japan. David states:

> The government and Monbusho [MEXT] do attempt to install some programs [Global 30 program, TGUP]. Install some efforts. Engage in some efforts to bring in more foreign faculty to universities because they feel the pressure that Japan has a bad image problem. And, they have an idea that more overseas faculty equals a spread of internationalization

> or the appearance of internationalization. My impression is more cosmetic than anything. And, the evidence that supports that impression is that these things do not seem to meaningfully change the reality from the university regarding foreign representation now compared to decades ago. However, my impression is that part of it is they have the idea. Japan is slipping in the global ranking. A lot of the universities are slipping in the global rankings in Japan. And the reason is partly because there is not much cross-pollination which is commonly perceived as the lifeblood of universities.

Jenkins (2011) argues that although many universities claim to be deeply international, at the linguistic level, they are, in essence, deeply national. Moreover, their claims to internationalism sound somewhat hollow, considering that language is such a key component of academic existence. David's statement sums up the current situation at his university in Japan. In addition, one of the objectives of the TGUP, according to Rose and McKinley (2018), is to increase the number of non-Japanese faculty members and to advocate for universities to create more tenure-track positions for foreign faculty. However, this also encompasses the so-called foreign faculty who have been educated and trained in Japan, which includes Koreans, Chinese and other Asian nationalities that do not have Japanese citizenship but are born, raised, educated in Japan for several generations and are still considered non-Japanese (Huang, 2017; Yonezawa et al., 2013).

The situation presented at the micro-level indicates that remnants of previous initiatives and past governmental policies are still present within the university community as indicated by the following quotes:

> Cheap and disposable. Also needed to meet MEXT criteria. (Respondent 39)

> English Language Program that appears to be the remnants of a previously ambitious department that saw Internationalization as a way forward for their students. The program continues to exist because it is a relatively effective English language program and MEXT offers generous funding [to the university]. (Respondent 17)

> Most of the hiring budget comes from MEXT programs, but this type of short-term funding does not produce long-term results. A lot of new foreign faculty were recruited

> under the G30 Program, but most only worked for a couple of years as their contracts were not renewed. (Respondent 38)

The above statements by foreign faculty suggest that government policies are woven into institutional policies, however, they seem to have little or no support by the actual actors that are affected by the policies at both the macro- and micro-levels. There are also signals that understanding these policies are misconstrued by the actors that are directly affected by them.

Rose and McKinley's (2018) examination of 37 TGUP university websites found that faculty internationalization was the number one priority while internationalization in general was sixth. Moreover, Rose and McKinley (2018) reported that "English-medium instruction, which was a key term in previous policy documents, such as the Global 30, [was] notably absent in explicit descriptions of TGUP documents" (p. 123). This shift in policy may indicate a re-examination of policies at the meso-level, which in turn will affect foreign faculty at the micro-level.

Kobayashi (1986) discusses that *kokusaika* (Japanese internationalization), ends up being nothing but lip service or used as a platform for national interests to intensify a trend towards nationalist education.

Therefore, the conceptions of Japanese internationalization outlined above demonstrate the conflict between what Japanese universities view as internationalization compared to what these foreign faculty bring to the university in terms of their understanding of internationalisation. Furthermore, the university rationale regarding the role that these foreign faculty fulfil within the university community as agents of internationalization is to bring the appearance of internationalization into the classroom. Moreover, there is a need for non-Japanese faculty to become aware of what initiatives are being used to internationalise Japanese

universities with the help of foreign faculty, even if they are unaware of the role that they are performing.

### 5.7 Theme 3: Integration

Foreign faculty may need to see integration from within Japanese universities, meaning that the idea of integration is based on a Japanese version. However, this idea of integration, according to Schein (2010), is derived from the human need to make our environment as practical and logical as the actors can, and further indicates that integration is a process that depends on the length of time that one is willing to commit to the process, the stability of the members of the community, and the actual experiences that the actors have shared. Foreign faculty should be aware that some Japanese university understanding of integration is not the same concept as prevails in their home country and there is a lack of commitment to developing integration pathways to support foreign faculty contributions to reform (Brotherhood et al., 2020). De Mente (2003) states that "conflicts between Japan[ese] and the rest of the world will disappear as soon as foreigners succeed in understanding the Japanese viewpoint" (p. 158). Foreign faculty need to examine the integration that is being offered by their universities in such that universities are willing to hire non-Japanese as faculty.

The following voices are foreign faculty explaining Japanese integration at various universities in Japan. Throughout this section, integration is interpreted differently at both the macro- and micro-level:

> I feel that in matters of workload, and teaching style that foreign faculty have more freedom to choose a style that suits them, rather than conforming to established norms. (Noah, tenured foreign faculty)

> Part-time teachers de facto have enjoyed a quasi-tenure. (Oliver, tenured foreign faculty)

Robinson (1998) has suggested that "integration" is a chaotic concept: a word used by many but understood differently by most, suggesting that the concept is contested and contextual. This belief is reaffirmed by Castles, Korac, Vasta, and Vertovec (2002). They put

forth that there is no single, widely accepted definition, theory or model for the integration of immigrants and refugees. The theory tends to be divisive and intensely debated. Brotherhood et al. (2020) propose that internationalizing universities use an integration concept that involves a two-way shared accommodation mechanism and the potential for changing the academic system. These factors have been shown to exist within the university community both on a micro- and macro-level as illustrated above.

The following examples by foreign faculty illustrate how the local concept of integration is interpreted by Japanese universities, these examples also show how the concept of integration affects the roles of foreign faculty at various institutions:

> Foreign faculty are largely excluded from consideration for jobs relating to anything except language instruction. (Respondent 87)

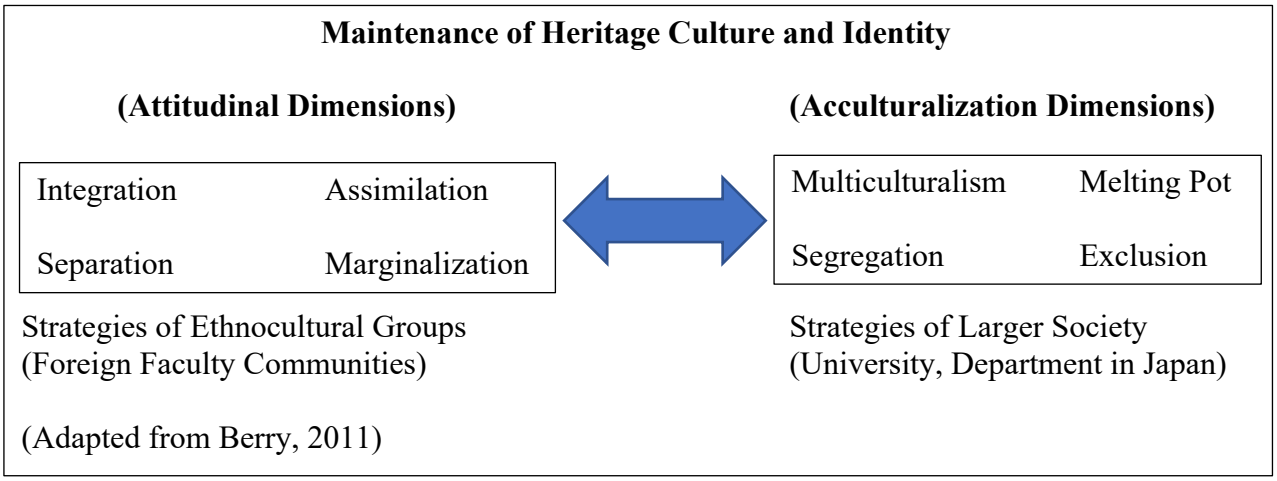
> Our purpose is to provide a range of courses including content-based courses and courses that teach culture. (Respondent 82)

> My role is to encourage learner autonomy through advising sessions and to run the language learning centre (but I do most of that – meetings, advising sessions with students) in Japanese. (Respondent 71)

According to Ager and Strang (2008), cultural competence was perceived as essential to integrating into the broader community effectively; being able to speak the local vernacular, for example, was understood as a central skill necessary for the integration process. Moreover, "integration is largely unknown especially since there has been little research about how they (foreign faulty) fit into the different school communities" (Niyubahwe et al., 2013, p. 279). The above examples show that a given Japanese university uses foreign faculty in terms of what they are allowed to do varies to a considerable extent.

Foreign faculty that have invested a significant amount of time in their institution want to be a meaningful part of the university organization. However, some foreign faculty also insist on

keeping their individual and group culture whether they be American, British, Canadian or other nationalities. However, Japanese universities are reluctant to have a particular foreign culture or individual identity penetrate outside of the classroom. They want the melting pot to affect the learning environment but not influence the management or ethos of the institution or the daily administration of the university's operation. An example of this is that once foreign faculty leave their classroom, Japanese is the dominant language and little or no support is awarded to other languages, even when the department is primarily non-Japanese. An exception is when tenured foreign faculty are heads of departments. This is illustrated by Berry's (2011) concept of the maintenance of heritage culture and identity chart below **(Figure 5.1).**




Berry (2011) suggests that integration can take place in the context of relations between actors at various levels. However, integration requires that foreign faculty pursue the idea along with Japanese universities that are open to the notion of allowing non-Japanese faculty to integrate into Japanese HEIs. Berry further suggests that

> … integration can only be chosen and successfully pursued by non-dominant groups (foreign faculty) when the dominant society (university) is open and inclusive in its orientation towards cultural diversity. Thus a mutual accommodation is required for integration to be attained, involving the acceptance by both groups of the right of all groups to live as culturally different people" (p. 26).

This relationship accounts for the differences in the extent to which individual foreign faculty are able or not able to become involved in their institutions. The data showed how many foreign faculty members were able to excel in their given positions while others struggled to become fully involved with their institution or department. The reason, according to Berry, is that both groups are unable to or unwilling to accept the other's differences in cultural terms. This lack of acceptance in relation to how daily routines are performed by the foreign faculty has resulted in a dysfunctional group of faculty members as a community.

However, the denotation of integration in Japan is different compared to the typical western view (see Chapter 2 and 3). Variations in the level of integration depend on the university and individual situations. Oliver offers an account of foreign faculty in today's university context:

> Part-time teachers, de facto have enjoyed a quasi-tenure in Japan. [...] Moreover, so I think from a personal experience being non-tenured and working both contract positions and part-time positions myself, I have experienced myself how those sorts of anxieties develop from not being secure in one's position can affect the quality or perception of one's institution and one's place in the institution. (Oliver, tenured foreign faculty)

McVeigh (2002) states that in the Meiji era (1868-1912), "non-Japanese were offered short-term contracts that did not grant tenure" (p.171). This is in sharp contrast to 2020 where minor and low-prestige universities are able to offer tenure to foreign faculty, however, this is not the norm for top-level universities such as those in TGUP.

> … all of our foreign faculty are tenured. About 25 percent of the faculty in my department are foreign but we are all tenured" [this occurs with departments with few foreign faculty in the institution or in the region]. (Respondent 40)

In addition, the process of integration for non-Japanese, both regarding domestic policy and cultural factors, hinders the ability of non-Japanese faculty to integration into the Japanese university.

At both the macro- and micro-level, foreign faculty revealed that becoming part of the department community was unproblematic. However, there are preconditions in terms of the depth of integration which are dependent on the length of employment, position, institutional knowledge and types of classes taught. Integration was temporary and to gain permanent status was unviable without personal, professional and cultural sacrifices.

### 5.7.1 Cultural awareness

This study found that one's own culture translates into different forms, such as socialising and gossiping. These cultural forms as introduced by foreign faculty into the domestic community can cause conflicts within the foreign faculty community without knowing how the local community will react to an unfamiliar cultural transaction. For example, Oliver (tenured foreign faculty) explains:

> It has also been my experience that they [common staffrooms] are not always places where you get trustworthy information. Alternatively, whether you get complete information; often times there is an opportunity for perceptions to be reinforced. Not always based on reality. Well, not always based on the full picture.

This kind of situation can lead to domestic faculty questioning the cultural knowledge of foreign faculty as explained below:

> Can you use chopsticks? / Do you know about "cold ramen" / Do you know Ikebukuro [one of the largest train stations in Tokyo]?) Despite the fact that I teach seminar courses in intercultural communication and have lived in Japan for almost 20 years. I am quite surprised at such treatment since this [domestic] teacher has lived overseas and teaches EFL. (Questionnaire Respondent 12)

This example shows that even with cultural knowledge and awareness, stereotypical views can still exist on part of domestic faculty members regarding the knowledge of Japanese culture that foreign faculty may possess, even after an extended period of interacting within the same institution.

However, Whitsed and Wight's (2013) study has found that foreign faculty "critically reflect on their own culture(s), value linguistic and cultural diversity" (p. 228). This may depend on how long a given foreign faculty member has been in Japan. Questionnaire Respondent 12 had been in Japan for over twenty years and is proficient in Japanese.

This study also found institutional cultural awareness was lacking within parts of the foreign faculty community, particularly in areas where hired foreign faculty were not introduced into the institutional community without mentoring or orientation in terms of institutional customs and routines. This led to superficial conflicts because, without the support of the existing foreign faculty, the new foreign faculty experienced conflicts within the community. This was illustrated by Oliver (tenured foreign faculty):

> There are institutions where foreign faculty are brought in for their prestige as well, for their expertise." … An institution that I worked at brought in a large percentage of foreign faculty and the faculty meetings were interesting. Quite a big culture clash.

However, if new foreign faculty were more culturally aware of institutional and community norms, then they could become part of the existing foreign and domestic faculty community, as shown in the following quote:

> Language proficient foreign faculty are privileged to more information and considered easier to work with and are included in more administrative work. (Respondent 3)

This illustrates that local language skills are possibly more beneficial to integration than being culturally aware of local customs and norms. Also, language proficiency may lead to work outside of the classroom where foreign faculty may support the institutional needs to internationalize.

Within these participants, there may be a need for constant and tailored support to rapidly develop the essential knowledge and competency required to be able to read a local situation

appropriately. Therefore, cultural awareness is necessary on the part of non-Japanese faculty, which would allow for their transition into the local institution.

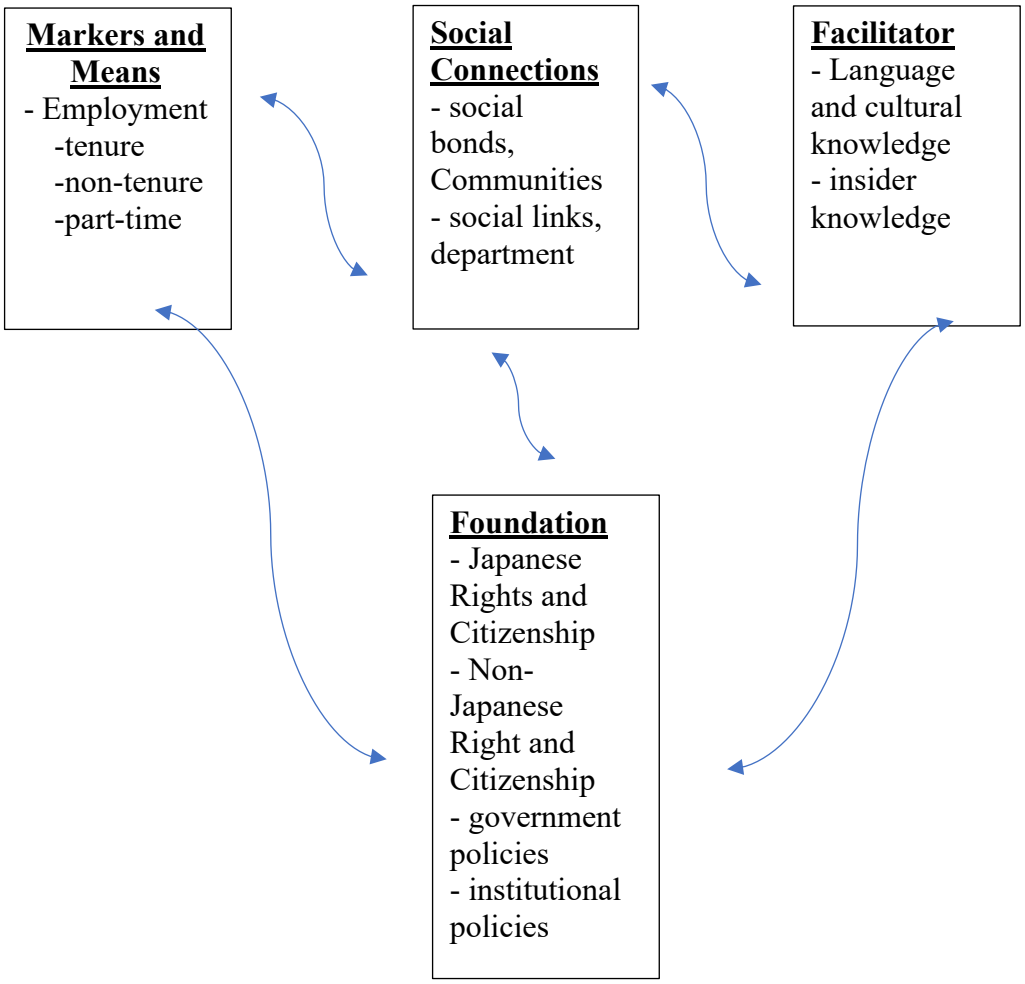
#### 5.7.1a Subordinate themes 3: Foreign faculty skill set

Foreign faculty who possessed Japanese language abilities along with domestic cultural knowledge were better able to relate to those local customs that influenced their daily interaction with their domestic counterparts, departments and institutions. However, foreign faculty without such competencies soon found themselves isolated from the domestic faculty community and restricted to teaching tasks and thereby devoid of management responsibilities and career development opportunities. Ager and Strang (2008) state that domains of integration involve connections relating to language, culture and the local environment. However, in the local environment, the foreign faculty community is divided by unwritten conventions. Even the basic notions of being faculty are blurred, as explained by the following quote:

> They [non-tenured foreign faculty] are not members of the *kyoujukai* [tenured faculty committee], and they do not have the same responsibilities. All they have to do is teach their classes, but we [tenured foreign faculty] have a million responsibilities which are very wide ranging. (Respondent 24)

This faculty member has elapsed their role within the university to meet the student's needs and fulfil the institution's mandate. Whitsed and Volet (2011) stated that adjunct foreign English Language teachers (i.e. foreign faculty) “are positioned neither fully in nor out of the Japanese university system” they are “at the periphery in the Japanese university” (p. 162). The following diagram illustrates the domains of integration within Japanese universities.

**Figure 5.2:** Core Domains of Integration at Japanese Universities




(adapted from Ager & Strang, 2008)

The core domains of integration from the participants indicated four areas that are interconnected. 1. Facilitators are understood as removing 'barriers' to integration, such as language and culture, and insider knowledge. 2. The Foundation domain considers citizenship and rights; to be made clear in whatever situations the system applies. Notions of citizenship and rights can differ across contexts, but in all situations, certain concepts are central to understanding the values and practices of integration in a particular setting. 3. Markers and Means highlight a range of vital areas of public interaction (employment, education), commonly

suggested as signalling effective integration. 4. Social Connection processes are seen to mediate or provide links between foundational principles of citizenship, rights and public outcomes in employment, housing, education and health. Social Bonds are valued proximity to a family or social group because it enabled them to share cultural practices and maintain familiar relationship patterns. These Connections played a large part in the participants' feeling of being settled both at their university and in their communities (Ager & Strang, 2008).

#### 5.7.1b Foreign faculty pre-university occupation, educational background

This research has shown that Japanese universities are home to a diverse group of foreign faculty with varying experiences and qualifications. However, foreign faculty's lives before teaching at universities in Japan have not been explored or considered as a factor in their integration into Japanese universities. This group's diversity suggests that their lives before coming to Japan and entering tertiary teaching be investigated; this may assist in the recruiting, professional development, and long-term outlook of their academic careers. The research found that a large percentage of foreign faculty came to Japan without knowing that someday they would be teaching at an HEI (see Appleby, 2014; Nagatomo, 2016). Lucas (non-tenured foreign faculty, previously tenured). explains the situation:

> They came here like a hippy or some kind of journey escaping somewhere and then, found themselves [in Japan]. Then thought [to themselves], 'Yeah dude, I am going to be a teacher here at a university … do you know Teacher X at University X got a tenured position?'

This example is perhaps unusual outside of Japan and alien to western academics, namely where potential teaching faculty come to Japan with no preconception that one day they will become foreign faculty at a university. This has been termed the 'backpacker-to-professor syndrome' (Thornbury, 2002), where non-academics come to Japan and enter a career teaching

English and where individual circumstances transpire to them teaching at the tertiary level (Appleby, 2014).

Indeed, Appleby's (2014) study of western male academics teaching in HE in Japan has found that all 10 participants were *eikaiwa* (conversation school) or high school teachers before starting their academics careers. In contrast, six out of seven interviewees in this study at the micro-level were not in academia in their home countries and did not hold a university teaching position when they arrived in Japan. Additionally, the majority did not have a Master's degree when they began their teaching career in Japan.

The following situation is illustrated by David, tenured foreign faculty with over a decade and a half of teaching experience at the university level in Japan: "Before coming to Japan. I was a video clerk. I was getting a bachelor's degree" while Noah, tenured foreign faulty, remarked "I was teaching at a private high school [in Japan]." These are the typical situations of foreign faculty in Japan. The phenomenon of foreign faculty teaching at a junior, senior high school, or *eikaiwa* and then moving on to university teaching, is supported by a previous study (Appleby, 2014).

As Noah, (tenured foreign faculty) stated, "In my department…we have a lot of teachers that don't have a Master's degree." This research found that six out of seven interviewees did not have Master's degrees in education or a related field before coming to Japan. This situation is dissimilar to Ager and Strang's (2008) findings where foreign teachers were under-employed. This was also prevalent in Niyubahve et al. (2013) examination of immigrant teacher integration, where a high level of unemployment and under-employment was detected among immigrant teachers. However, this research found that participants may have been underqualified as

university faculty upon entering university teaching, but some of the actors continually improved their qualifications to reach tenure.

### 5.8 Job Titles given to Foreign Faculty

Liam (non-tenured foreign faculty) explained that "the majority of the people that I am aware of who are foreign faculty or teachers at universities do not have PhDs … a title of lecturer is more appropriate than a professor". According to McVeigh (2002), foreign faculty in the Meiji era (1868-1912) were called *gaikikujin kyoushi* (foreign instructors). Even amongst scholars, there is no clear definition of who and what defines non-Japanese faculty. Terms used to denote non-Japanese faculty include: international faculty (Huang, 2017; Huang et al., 2019), junior international faculty (Brotherhood et al., 2020), foreign faculty (Huang, 2017), part-time faculty (Meixner et al., 2010), and academics (Teichler, 2019).

This research found there were no less than 21 titles (Table 5.7) for foreign faculty; ranging from expatriate academic, immigrant academic, native professor, non-Japanese faculty to temporary/disposable faculty and professor. This situation complicates the role of the foreign faculty where their titles and qualifications do not necessarily fit any specific or logical form compared to their actual role when viewed by outsiders. Therefore, the job title has no bearing on their tenured or non-tenured status or what actual credentials foreign faculty possess; for example, a foreign faculty member with the title associate professor could be non-tenured and serve on several committees, whereas a tenured professor may not serve on any committees or be involved in research.

**Table 5.5**: Foreign Faculty Job Titles

| Top 10 Foreign Faculty Titles: | Other Suggested Job Titles: |
|---|---|
| 1. Foreign Faculty 33.2 % | -Faculty |
| 2. Instructor 14.8 % | -Tenured Faculty |
| 3. Expatriate Academic 10.4% | -Non-Japanese Faculty |
| 4. Part-time Faculty 9.6 % | -Non-Japanese Teacher |
| 5. Foreign-born Faculty 8.7 % | -Disposable Faculty |
| 6. Native Professor 5.2 % | -Temporary Faculty |
| 7. International Academic 2.6 % | -Non-Japanese Instructor |
| 8. Academic Migrant 1.7 % | -International Teacher |
| 9. Immigrant Faculty 1.7 % | -Foreign Teacher |
| 10. Native Speaker Teacher 1.2% | -International Window-dressing |

### 5.9 Theme 3: Conclusion

In summary, integration within a Japanese university context at a macro- and micro-level has different aspects that are dependent on local institutional needs and the capacity of foreign faculty to integrate into an unfamiliar setting created for the non-Japanese faculty within the confines of a Japanese HEIs. Moreover, the definition of integration needs to encompass the environment that non-Japanese faculty find themselves in, yet at the same time, non-Japanese faculty need to be aware that this definition may differ to the one they are familiar with, such as the definition offered by (Brotherhood et al., 2020). Also, integration needs to allow foreign faculty to become part of the pedagogical development process and provide equal access to institutional support such as career development and titles that fit their role within their institutions.

### 5.10 Theme 4: Assimilation

Assimilation in its basic form is where the minority group (foreign faculty) adopt the cultural patterns of the host society (Japanese university) (Nee & Alba, 2012). This macro- and micro-level research has shown a segmented assimilation into the local community where foreign faculty are assimilated to various degrees largely dependent on local language ability and length of time in Japan. Foreign faculty must know or learn the local rules to assimilate (Alba & Nee, 2009). Moreover, some Japanese universities consider assimilation a strictly one-way notion, namely that non-Japanese faculty need to conform to local practices (Brotherhood et al., 2020).

Assimilation at the university level can be difficult for foreign faculty due to factors related to the local culture and practices. Foreign faculty bring their life experiences to the university, including their attitudes and approaches, such as modes of thought and conduct that are not the local norms. According to Simon-Maeda (2004), the personal collection of values of a teacher, an integral part of their identity forged from a lifetime of social experiences, forms educational principles and professional practices that influence students' learning contexts; these tenets also have a cultural input in the non-teaching environment, such as in faculty staffrooms and administrative duties that involve interactions with domestic staff.

According to Berry (2011) ‘assimilation’ strategy is characterised by individuals who do not wish to maintain their cultural identity and seek daily interaction and integration into the dominant culture (Japanese) (p. 26). In contrast, ‘separation’ is characterised by individuals placing a value on maintaining their original culture while simultaneously limiting their interaction with the dominant culture. Moreover, Berry (2011) explains that ‘assimilation’ when sought by the dominant group is termed the ‘melting pot’; when the dominant group forces

separation, it is ‘segregation’ or ‘marginalization’. When imposed by the dominant group it is ‘exclusion’. ‘Integration’ is when the cultural diversity of the non-dominant group is a feature of the dominant group as a whole and this is termed ‘multiculturalism’.

Findings in this study suggest that foreign faculty felt that conforming to MEXT and institutional polices on the part of individual universities and departments is superficial and is only sought by institutions so that government and institutional funding might be obtained. For example:

> [Foreign faculty are]. Cheap and disposable. Additionally, [foreign faculty are] needed to meet MEXT criteria.” (Respondent 39)
>
> 5 years and then we must quit. Use us up and then fire us, regardless of quality. (Respondent 48)
>
> Foreign faculty design and teach project-based classes, such as Study Abroad and Globalization which is directly funded by the Global 30 Project. (Respondent 63)

The above foreign faculty quotes suggest that each given institution, department and community has a unique set of rules, which are written and tacitly learned. These rules are not taught but learned through the communities, whether institutional or social. However, one needs to learn the proper Japanese vernacular for working within their institution and department to be able to comprehend the meaning of such rules in order to be conform to local conditions.

This research found that foreign faculty’s acclimation took place to varying degrees based on the willingness of the given foreign faculty member to become part of the local culture, which is turn was based on the community and Japanese university environment. Davies and Ikeno (2002) and De Mente (2011) suggest that, in the case of Japan, a dual-nature culture has infiltrated every aspect of society, leaving essentially nothing to either personal inclination or the morality of the individual concerned. The following examples illustrate this:

> Our department is cut off almost entirely from the rest of the university. Our boss is the only person who corresponds to [with] the [domestic] tenured faculty, administration; possibly by design. (Respondent 9)

> In the eyes of the university I am 'tenured,' but I am on a yearly rolling contract. (Respondent 48)

> Foreign faulty are not expected to [make] any contribution besides their actual classes. Their views or opinions are not even sought after. (Respondent 49)

The above aspects of some Japanese universities have led to misinterpretations and a lack of understanding by the respondents in this study of the domestic institutional norms. This has resulted in non-Japanese faculty becoming part of the university system but not one with the system; essentially an outsider with work privileges but excluded from genuine incorporation into the university. For example:

> I eat lunch with three non-tenured Japanese faculty [members] in the common staff room about twice a week. All of them teach EFL courses but in different departments. We converse in both English and Japanese, but when the conversation switches to Japanese, I am completely dropped from the group, and the three just interact amongst themselves even though I can speak Japanese. (Respondent 12)

> Assess communication with the administration about the term [only in Japanese]. This is very problematic when the university changes schedules i.e. Tuesday's classes on Wednesday. Usually, the Japanese staff are aware because they can read the timetable, or they have chats with the office workers. Office workers tend to ignore us [foreign faculty who do not understand Japanese]. (Respondent 27)

As a result, assimilation appears to take place to varying degrees but change depending on the foreign faculty community or individual and the institution where they were employed.

The research found that at a national (macro) level within select universities, foreign faculty are being '*ghettoised*', which reflects what is referred to as 'segregated assimilation' (Alba & Nee, 2009). Barriers and partitions are created to segregate the foreign faculty, but not walls, so that foreign faculty are allowed to move within the department. This condition allows foreign faculty to join and form communities within the department that consist of Japanese and

non-Japanese faculty, tenured and non-tenured staff, however, only according to the needs of the institution as driven by the latter's policies and cultural norms. The researcher attributes this to a form of Japanese assimilation (Brotherhood et al., 2020; Brown, 2018).

Logan (non-tenured foreign faculty) expressed his sense of the reality of the Japanese university system that is unspoken and seldom researched.

> They [universities] are protecting themselves against foreigners. They [universities in Japan] don't want things to change. They [Japanese faculty] don't want foreigners taking their positions. They [universities] don't want policies to change. People who see themselves in a position of power. Whether it be high-level professors or doctor, they do not like having their opinions questioned.

Brown (2018) suggests that at some universities, foreign faculty are still considered temporary, expendable, and peripheral, and often experience a role of encapsulation or pigeonholing into stereotypically duties associated with those attributed to English teachers. What is more telling about non-tenured foreign faculty is their ambition to develop their skills as foreign faculty as stated previously by Mia (non-tenured foreign faculty): "the courses that I teach have developed to the point where now I really love all the courses I am teaching." This underlines how she made attempts to overcome the institutional culture while working towards refining her craft as a lecturer, developing courses to benefit the students and ultimately the university that employees her, knowing her position was temporary. However, skills needed to assimilate into the local culture, such as language and community norms, may conflict with Japanese university practices; thereby, potentially hindering the foreign faculty's ability to adjust to local norms outside of the classroom.

### 5.10.1 Subordinate themes: Domestic institutional factors

Finding a permanent academic tenured position at a university in any country is difficult. Japanese universities have institutional guidelines that are written, as well as some in-depth

unwritten policies, which are not publicized outside of a given institution's hiring communities. This results in foreign faculty experiencing difficulty in applying for tenured university positions. Also, many universities require applications to be handwritten and filled out in Japanese.

According to Goodman (2016), "Japan's curse in this context [of internationalization] is that it is just large enough to have a higher education system [which remains] self-contained" (p. viii). Goodman (2016) offers the example of a Japanese sociologist "foreseeably spend[ing] their entire career dealing with Japanese-language material in sociology without ever attending an international meeting of sociologists [which] would not be possible in South Korea or even China" (p. viii). This dimension may not be unique to Japan, but it adds a layer of complexity that foreign faculty may not have encountered previously.

The following excerpts from David and Oliver explain the experiences of once non-tenured faculty:

> I think that the biggest problem with these kinds of teachers [non-tenured faculty], these kinds of teacher's face is that they have limited contracts. I just think it is monstrous. I don't understand it. It doesn't make economic sense. I don't think it makes any sense. It only makes sense from the view that these are temporary people [foreign faculty]. (David, tenured foreign faculty)

> Come a year come two years teach and then go back to your home. You're not supposed to be here permanently. (Oliver, tenured foreign faculty)

The circumstances that David explains above goes to the heart of the situation of non-Japanese faculty working as part of the teaching collective at a university but unable or not allowed to become part of the local community. Therefore, many non-tenured find themselves in Oliver's situation, going from one university to another without being able to become a permanent part of a Japanese university. Oliver further explains his dilemma:

> I had been working continuously since I first arrived in Japan, I was growing increasingly anxious about the sustainability of continuing to find full-time limited term contract lectureships. This was due to the practice followed by many of the schools I had worked for which did not allow teachers to return for a second term of employment. This meant that as I got older, many of the better lectureships in terms of working conditions and salary might no longer be open for me to apply for.

The situation that David and Oliver found themselves in leads to foreign faculty being marginalized and unable to put down permanent roots or become part of the inner community or achieve tenure. Whitsed and Wright (2013) found that adjunct foreign faculty "regard themselves as being marginalized and constrained professionally by cultural and institutional mores, and while feeling constrained by factors such as limited institutional support and students' motivation levels" (p.233). Oliver, as a tenured foreign faculty, explains how one might gain tenure, but the difficulty is in obtaining an initial contract that has no limitation in its term of employment:

> [A]n example of how *koushi* positions could be limited term [and also have equivalent salary scales] but have different career paths depending on whether a person [was] tenure track or not. If one were *sennin koushi* the opportunity for promotion was there, whereas a lecturer with a *gaikokujin koushi* or *tokunin koushi* rank would not. The final part of my answer is an attempt to provide an example of the steps on the tenure track ladder e.g. 専任講師→准教授→助教授→教授 [Full-time lecturer → Assistant Professor → Associate Professor → Professor] OR 講師→助教→准教授→教授" [Instructor → Assistant Professor → Associate Professor → Professor].

In the above excerpt, Oliver explains the hiring differences between domestic and foreign faculty at some universities in Japan. There are minor differences in the title, but the more significant issue is the difference between the 'full-time lecturer' title for domestic faculty that reflects as an entry-level position, and the 'instructor' title for foreign faculty that also signifies an entry-level position. However, an 'instructors' is usually not tenured whereas a 'full-time lecturer' has the possibility of being tenured. Therefore, this discrepancy prevents many foreign faculty from gaining a tenure-track position from the onset of being hired.

There is a notion that non-tenured foreign faculty are readily available and plentiful in terms of the hiring process. Appleby (2014) has also found that recruitment for non-tenured part-time university positions came from personal recommendations and through the network of existing teaching faculty. In the following excerpt, Logan explains the result of the Japanese way of recruiting non-tenured part-time positions:

> As a part-timer you tend to get left alone a lot. It is the same job. But, because each university is different, sometimes one university will burn you out. You can go to a different university which has a very different culture. Basically, change is as good as a holiday sometimes. You can mix it up a bit.

Logan is suggesting that part-time foreign faculty can find work easily and that each university has its own institutional culture and, if one desires to change one's environment, one can. Finding a new university to secure employment would not be too difficult. This results in a transient teaching foreign faculty who find it difficult to achieve a tenured-track standing. However, local institutional factors have resulted in creating this non-permanent foreign teaching faculty. Moreover, the hiring, recruitment, and retention practices of Japanese universities are a significant barrier to assimilation into Japan's HEIs. However, a few non-Japanese faculty are able to become part of a select group that is able and willing to assimilate into the local environment. A willingness to become part of the local community is a deciding factor which is dependent on the foreign faculty's openness to accepting the local conditions that govern assimilation. ACU tenured foreign faculty that are on committees, supervise domestic staff, and have chaired departments are examples of assimilation for this research.

#### 5.10.1a Foreign faculty insider knowledge

Non-tenured faculty come in a variety of constructs, backgrounds and personalities. Their positions and experience in tertiary education at other similar institutions varies by academic

discipline, institutional type, gender, age, and geographical location in the world (Baldwin & Chronister, 2001). These factors lead to foreign faculty with insider knowledge of their Japanese university community, which has added insight to how their universities operate beyond the classroom.

Schmidt (2010) has reported that immigrant teachers have faced discriminatory practices in certain university communities, such as the failure to recognise professional skills while their experiences obtained outside of the host country may not be considered as qualifications to teach in their new context. In some cases at Japanese universities, the foreign faculty are showpieces, decorations, and promotional material as illustrated below from personal accounts of the participants:

> Foreign faculty are hired to teach their academic specialties … but I [non-tenured foreign faculty] rarely have contact with them [tenured foreign faculty] other than seeing a poster advertising their lectures and seminars. (Respondent 32)

> They [foreign faculty] are generally regarded as the 'barely-tolerated *gaijin* [foreigners]' used as 'accessories' for the make-up of the school. (Respondent 17)

As illustrated above, the concern of universities in Japan relate to student and administration desires rather than the quality of teaching or the foreign faculty members themselves. Every institution has its own institutional culture but the external image of the university supersedes academic needs in many cases as illustrated above. Furthermore, assimilation, or a lack thereof, is evident in the foreign faculty community in relations between foreign tenured and non-tenured faculty, and this may be influenced by the length of time spent in Japan.

Brotherhood et al. (2020) study suggests that if a more lasting change of internationalization is desired, HEIs need to examine the recruitment of international faculty and local actors needs to consider ways to accommodate non-domestic faculty into Japanese

universities in tangible ways. Efforts then need to be refocused on integrating this group to challenge marginalization and to enable change processes by international actors within the domestic university to change processes. Brown's (2018) study of foreign faculty illustrates that foreign faculty are poorly integrated into their institution's professional mainstream; however, institutions reap the benefits because their recognition is related to positive attributions, such as progressiveness, justice, meritocracy and inclusiveness. Foreign faculty often experience role encapsulation or pigeonholing into duties stereotypically associated with those attributes making them tokens of race or gender. The following examples are derived from the experience of foreign faculty in Japan:

> [From] personal experiences, well, you notice that teachers socialize with each other in common rooms. It is part of what makes the work environment more pleasant or less pleasant and common rooms are places for teachers to socialize but also to exchange information. About the things, you are asking, about departmental policy, about curriculum design, about individuals as well, it has also been my experience that they are not always places where you get trustworthy information. (Oliver, tenured faculty)

> Quite often they are about the differences we see between how teachers teach and, oh, I walk past a classroom where I have seen the students were asleep [in the classroom while class is in session] or those kinds of things. There seems to be a consensus between the non-tenured foreign staff about how they [tenured foreign faculty] teach and so when they see examples counter to that they bring it up and they talk about it. (Mia non-tenured foreign faculty)

Mia points out a typical situation where foreign faculty talk about how they teach and conduct academic research, however, she has witnessed a foreign faculty member's teaching style to be contrary to what is typically expressed by foreign faculty:

> They [non-tenured foreign faculty] … are doing the bulk of the teaching. They … teach more *koma* [classes]. And so, they are much more the face of the foreign teaching staff than we [tenured foreign faculty] are. Numerically they are a lot more of them we are. (David, tenured foreign faculty)

David's quote cited above illustrates the faculty's reality in many countries, including the US, the UK, and Canada. Namely that there are more non-tenured foreign faculty than tenured faculty. However, this research also found a disproportionate number of non-tenured foreign faculty compared to tenured in Japan within the participants. Also, this research found that non-tenured foreign faculty teach up to 20 *koma* (class) per academic year and possibly work at more than one university.

> I think Japanese universities like to talk about internationalization, but I think from the top. There are some professors and deans who are on board with what it really means. But, for most universities, I think actually that there a lot of real resistance to having too many foreign [faculty]. They [Japanese universities] want to have them as a basically a bit of a showpiece and perhaps for the English language. (Logan, non-tenured foreign faculty)

> By 'wage earners' I mean people who do not consider teaching their chosen career path, but who teach because it is a viable way to earn a living while they pursue other primary interests outside of their teaching work. (Oliver, tenured foreign faculty)

These foreign faculty members may not be 'wage earners' as Oliver has described but need to earn income to fulfil other personal interests or endeavours while teaching at a university. Oliver states what is known but rarely discussed or acknowledged within the foreign faculty community; that foreign faculty teach at a university to pursue other interests, such as martial arts, tea ceremony, or woodblock printing. Other participants and interviewees from ACU also echoed this sentiment. As shown at the macro-level, 44 percent of respondents indicated they work at two or more universities, including tenured and non-tenured faculty.

Assimilation can be seen as a diverse mainstream society in which people of different ethnic backgrounds can evolve to create a shared culture that can be sustained over time (Alba & Nee, 2009). This is not the case at Japanese universities where the barriers currently in place mean that there is an inability to gain permanent positions, and thus a lack of assimilation of the foreign faculty community. This research showed some cultural misunderstandings, which

contributed to a lack of willingness to understand different positions on issues of assimilation from both the local and foreign faculty communities.

## 5.11 Other Findings (Quantitative and Qualitative Combined Phenomena)

Two additional phenomena appeared noteworthy for further investigation during the data analysis. First, how English as a medium of instruction actually puts those with little or no official credentials in competition for academic positions in part because of their nationality and mother tongue. Secondly, Japan is not using its strategic privilege as a first-world, resource-rich country to attract internationally renowned scholars into tenured positions. Instead, Japan is attempting to carry out internationalization by hiring a reserved of non-domestic faculty who are already in-country, which in some cases are underqualified foreign faculty with local insider knowledge and institutional familiarity. Both emerged worthy for further investigation and are explained briefly below in (sections 5.11.1 and 5.11.2).

### 5.11.1 English medium instructors compete for local academic positions

The phenomenon of how English as a medium of instruction actually puts those with little or no official credentials in the competition for academic positions was uncovered in the data analysis. English is more than just a means of communication; it is also an aspect of culture and a form of internationalization. The Japanese have historically been protective of their culture but have welcomed the use of English at universities; there are now a growing number of English-medium courses in Japan, which has allowed for underqualified foreign faculty to gain positions at some institutions. One example is at ACU where foreign faculty were hired under the job title of Practical English Instructor (see chapter 2). However, these are not traditional academic teaching positions like those in western HE. They have content-based course names,

like American History but are taught as an English as a foreign language course. One significant reason for the competition is that the positions are for native speakers of English; thus, local Japanese faculty are not eligible for these positions.

This research found that the experiences of foreign faculty, both full and part-time, mostly from English-speaking countries, educated in the West and hired locally, include teaching English language courses or simplified course content. For example, courses are often given titles such as Canadian Culture, Gender Studies or Academic Skills. English is the medium of instruction, but they are basically English language courses. These instructors are not teaching course content equivalent to undergraduate studies in western universities, as evidenced by grading and assessment standards and requirements set by the institution, including a certain percentage of grading to be allocated for attendance, as stated by several of the interviewee's from ACU.

### 5.11.2 Japan using locally trained foreign faculty for internationalization of universities

Japan does not use its strategic privilege of a well-resourced country to attract internationally renowned scholars to tenured positions but instead implements its internationalization by hiring a reserved group of in-country, locally trained and under-qualified foreign faculty. The following two examples contrast the relationship between international faculty recruitment outside Japan, compared to local foreign faculty hires, and their Japanese language ability.

> [International] faculty are recruited in areas where their perceived expertise is valued by the recruiting institution and that unsurprisingly many of these positions are in language [and] as stated previously, there are institutions where foreign faculty are brought in for their prestige as well, for their expertise. (Oliver, tenured foreign faculty)

> I would say that the majority of foreign faculty, at least in my experience, don't have a very advanced level of Japanese language ability. Even the ones that do, [are] maybe assumed not to have that ability by their Japanese colleagues or counterparts. And that may cause them to be relied upon less for input. (Mason, non-tenured foreign faculty)

Oliver's example at his university shows how his university sees expertise and the value that foreign faculty bring to the institution. Mason's example involves foreign faculty's unspoken and underlying competition to demonstrate their Japanese language ability through interaction with domestic staff. These two examples are reasons that Japanese universities are employing locally available faculty.

David explains how he and others have adapted to the conditions they find themselves in:

> You appreciate the bigger reality of it and you learned all of these strategies to contend with it. And you survive quite well. And you thrive. So, I think at that point people are pretty comfortable. They know the game. They know the score. And they do well with the part that they do have, they do as well as they can. (David, tenured foreign faculty)

Several interviewees addressed this notion of persistence and learning the systems. Mia (non-tenured foreign faculty) stated that some faculty would talk "mostly about pedagogical stuff and others wanted to talk about personal matters and needs during faculty meetings." Noah (tenured foreign faculty) indicated that teaching faculty without Master's degrees would "address personal research and their education over the research needs of the department, thus further complicating the relationship with the domestic, foreign faculty and administration to achieve personal ambitions." Moreover, these acquired skills and local knowledge sought after by the HEIs allow them to become part of the university community and part of the internationalization process even though these foreign faculty have low status at some universities (Brown, 2018).

In most cases, foreign faculty, including those at ACU, have lived in Japan for some time and are therefore familiar with what to expect from Japanese universities, the type and character of the student and life in Japan. Foreign faculty have often completed graduate degrees in

language teaching or education specifically to enhance employment opportunities at local universities. Many have worked full-time and/or part-time at other institutions, so they are familiar with other foreign faculty, including some who undertake collaborative research. This familiarity may lead to insights through shared information about job opportunities, reputations for the quality of individual universities, and their students, as well as various programs at neighbouring HEIs. All of these assets are beneficial to the university in fulfilling their internationalization goals, which in some cases do not require international scholars' prestige.

### 5.12 Summary

This study adopted a pragmatic and constructivist perspective to examine the relationship among foreign faculty, institutional policies and individual communities. More precisely, the study attempts to provide real-life accounts of foreign faculty members' lived experiences that took part in this study within their communities and attempted to illustrate their struggle to integrate into their local university system.

After examining governmental and institutional policies and practices, some have impeded non-Japanese faculty's ability to integrate into their HEIs in Japan, specifically at ACU and at the university level. However, organizational change has been attempted through government/institutional policy, such as the Global 30 programme and Top Global University Project. This has resulted in non-tenured foreign faculty becoming the face of internationalization at some universities and conceivably at ACU without becoming fully integrated into Japanese HEIs, as seen in other studies by Brotherhood et al. (2020) and Brown (2018).

This chapter began by demonstrating how the themes were developed in the context of this study by following the steps outlined by Braun and Clark, (2006, 2013, 2019). The

discussion then explored the development of the labels though to themes defined with a possible explanation for each. The result of the themes defined resulted in two new sub-categories of foreign faculty, PNTTFF and DTTFF. When qualitative and quantitative data were combined, two anomalies appeared. First, English instructions are able to compete for academic positions with little or no credentials because of their nationality and mother tongue. Second, Japan is not using its well-resourced country and strategic privilege to attract international faculty into tenured positions but instead carry out its internationalization by hiring local foreign faculty. The next chapter will outline the study's final conclusions, limitations and recommendation.

# Chapter 6: Summary and Recommendations

## 6.1 Summary of Findings

The purpose of this study was to investigate non-Japanese faculty and more specifically foreign faculty working at ACU, a Japanese university, to examine how their integration or lack of integration contributes to the internationalization of their university in the context of local conditions and changing governmental and institutional policies. This chapter explains how this study's findings answered the research questions. The implications of the findings are discussed in light of existing literature and the local context. Moreover, recommendations are made to better integrate the non-tenured foreign faculty by considering the university's needs and the foreign faculty's expressed wants at ACU. The limitations of the research are reviewed and suggestions for future research are provided.

An investigation of the data from this thesis connected to the participants of this study: two new sub-communities of foreign faculty, and perspectives form foreign faculty at ACU and other non-Japanese faculty on internationalization, integration and assimilation. Further, recommendations derived from data analysis will be introduced and discussed.

## 6.2 Answering the Research Questions

### A) Integration

Research question 1: ‘How do foreign faculty see themselves being integrated into Japan’s universities’? Two unique non-tenure foreign faculty sub-communities were identified: NTTFF and DTTFF. There is a lack of understanding of these two groups, how participants in this study become members of these groups, and why universities, such as ACU, are accessing these teachers to fill teaching positions. This lack of knowledge means universities, such as

ACU, may struggle to fully understand the implications of such hires on teacher turnover, longevity, integration into the university, as well as pedagogical and institutional issues (Jones, Hutchens, Hulbert, Lewis, & Brown, 2017).

Some non-tenured foreign faculty at ACU and other universities were not required to hold a Master's degree but were hired to teach similar courses taught by tenured foreign faculty holding terminal degrees. Some of the participants in this study commented that this disparity results in a distaste felt toward members of this underqualified group by, more qualified domestic and non-Japanese faculty members. These underqualified instructors are seen as being qualified for only non-tenured positions, namely English language teaching, not academic teaching positions. However, several of the non-tenured interviews and questionnaire participants referred to themselves as the university's foreign 'face' and as a tool of internationalization at ACU. The result is having the majority of foreign faculty not involved in traditional academic endeavours like research. Therefore, ACU and other universities should mandate that a teaching certificate is the minimum for hire. A Master's degree must be commenced to be considered for contract renewal or a tenure-track position.

The foreign faculty’s perception is that the university administration sees the non-tenured foreign faculty as temporary teachers. This results in a lack of consideration regarding promoting such staff to tenure-track positions and accounts for their absence from departmental and committee work. Moreover, there is also a notion that this group of faculty are disposable and are only granted fixed-term contracts by institutions. Several of the interviewees from ACU and the online questionnaire suggested that this condition has resulted in a continual turnover in teaching staff, and this has led to inconsistencies in teaching quality for students, even though internationalization was the actual motive to hire these teachers. Participants also thought the

motive for hiring was to appear more attractive and 'global', in the hope this would increase the enrolment of international and domestic students who wanted to be in an international setting.

**B) Policy and integration**

Research question 2: 'How do government and institutional policies impact the integration of foreign faculty in Japan's universities from the foreign faculty point of view?' This research found that existing governmental and institutional policies that are directly and indirectly related to the Global 30 and TGUP fail to address the future integration of foreign faculty and, in many cases, fail to acknowledge the variety of foreign faculty already in the Japanese university system. Statements and views by ACU and online questionnaire participants overwhelmingly suggested that there is the appearance of attempts at integration but that there was little substance in the form of integration. These policies may have created boundaries that policymakers are unaware of or choose to ignore. Such policies have also created off-shoots that have had adverse effects on non-tenured foreign faculty, which is the majority of the teaching faculty. One example is the overuse of limited contracts and the offering of irregular contracts to foreign faculty. Another is the lack of published procedures of how to gain tenure at ACU and other similar universities.

On a practical level, these policies have little actionable benefit to non-tenured foreign faculty both at national (macro) and local (micro) levels. This study found that foreign faculty (especially non-tenured foreign faculty) had insufficient knowledge regarding policy, even though such policies directly affected their ability to work effectively as academics within the Japanese university system. In many cases, this group was unaware that such policy existed and

was further unaware of the fact that these policies directly affected their effectiveness as teachers.

**C) The contribution of foreign faculty to internationalisation**

Research question 3: 'How do non-tenured foreign faculty see themselves in the internationalization of Japanese universities?' Internationalization was a recurring theme. An analysis of the data found that there is an issue regarding whether non-tenured foreign faculty are internationalizing the Japanese university by their existence. Their physical presence and the English language courses are part of the internationalization process; however, this is based on various versions of Japanese internationalization (see Chapters 2 and 3), which many foreign faculty in this research were unfamiliar with.

The implications are that non-tenured foreign faculty's actions at ACU, and other similar universities, illustrate to the Japanese students what internationalization is. As non-tenured foreign faculty are the majority of the teaching faculty within this research and at ACU, Japanese students may be in contact with this group of faculty more than any other. As a result, students are exposed to internationalization through the actions of these non-tenured faculty members. Institutions use non-Japanese faculty as an expression of internationalization without meaning or context. ACU and other similar universities may not appreciate whom they have given this responsibility to and possibly non-tenured foreign faculty have not realized that they have been given this unsolicited responsibility to fulfil.

## 6.3 Recommendations

### 6.3.1 For foreign faculty

1. Non-tenured foreign faculty should be encouraged to enter Japanese universities with tertiary teaching experience, the willingness to seek a terminal degree in their field and show some knowledge and cultural understanding of Japan. This information will allow them to become an active part of their institution. Institutions should provide opportunities to participate in continuous professional development (CPD) to better educate foreign faculty as university teachers and junior researchers within Japanese universities. This may require non-tenured foreign faculty to return to their home countries between semesters for additional training. Japanese universities should support this educational opportunity as a necessary part of their CPD with funding.

2. Foreign faculty need to develop a toolbox to help them integrate into the domestic system as well as encouraging their own self-development as teachers. There should be a concerted effort on the part of every foreign faculty member to see their position as student- and institution-centred regardless of the degree of integration that has taken place at their university. Each faculty member has a responsibility to educate and to further the institution's internationalization.

3. Non-tenured foreign faculty need to be as cooperative and accommodating as possible within the institution while respecting local and institutional norms; for example, by following deadlines, attending meetings, and maintaining an overall positive attitude when interacting with co-workers and leadership at the institution.

4. Non-tenured foreign faculty could be tasked to make a concerted effort to learn Japanese words and phrases to enhance their ability to communicate effectively within their local

community. A guide may be to learn 100-300 Japanese phrases/jargon used within the university routinely (Strongman, 2017).

Tenured foreign faculty members have suggested this at ACU. Acquiring and understanding the local terminology is necessary in order to become a more valuable member of the community. Also, this act of studying the local language indicates respect for the institution and its customs and traditions to members of the local community. There is great difficulty working with communities when the working language is not English. However, learning the local language is the first step that could lead to discussions of how better to integrate into the Japanese university system. Understanding the differences between local and non-local practices is a critical factor in becoming an effective member of the institution. This study found that the majority of non-tenured foreign faculty's ability to communicate with Japanese faculty and administrative staff was inadequate and may have led to misunderstandings.

### 6.3.2 For institutions

1. Universities should implement a mentoring system for the foreign faculty community (Feldman, Arean, Marshall, Lovett, & O'Sullivan, 2010).

2. The university should provide free Japanese classes for all foreign faculty new to Japan alongside an official orientation in relation to the local university system.

3. All MEXT and universities' policies should be translated into English and other languages accurately. The primary barrier for non-tenured foreign faculty was the failure by MEXT and Japanese universities not to have all policy documents translated into English accurately so that non-Japanese faculty members would be able to participate in the policy conversation within their given department and institution.

4. Teaching contracts should be reassessed. A significant barrier for non-tenured foreign faculty to become integrated into Japanese universities are the types of contracts used, such as the limited-term contract that can be renewed each year up to 10 years. Under current Japanese labour law, it is common for contracts to be non-renewable, so non-tenured foreign faculty are required to leave one university and look for employment elsewhere for no other reason than an arbitrary length of contract. This type of arrangement has become prevalent in recent years, making it difficult for foreign faculty to stay at any institution long enough to be considered for tenure track.

5. Japanese universities like ACU should re-examine their hiring process and policies to employ more non-Japanese faculty, particularly non-tenured foreign faculty. The current hiring process has allowed numerous underqualified foreign faculty to enter the tertiary teaching community (Poole, 2005; Appleby, 2014). Vetting of individual candidates should be systematic and rigorous with checks that include a third-party investigation of each candidate. The hiring policy should include a provision to move from a terminal teaching position to a tenure-track position if both parties agree at the onset of employment.

6. Japanese universities could consider modifying the current hiring process to more effectively take into consideration the needs of students, to better understand the role of non-Japanese as role-players in internationalization initiatives, and to ensure the hiring of the best-qualified candidates. Japanese universities, such as ACU, should not exclusively use their internal hiring committee that has been setup by the university and staffed with experienced Japanese tenured faculty. Instead, they could use external actors and agencies to vet potential applicants and to assist in the interview process, such as by providing translations in real-time for the candidates and the hiring committee when necessary.

7. Foreign faculty, both tenured and non-tenured, should be invited to serve on committees that discuss internationalization policies. Subsequently, foreign faculty should be willing to help on committees and provide active, constructive feedback and learn governance strategies to better their institution in particular and Japanese universities in general. For example, they could address the improvement and development of existing policies that affect foreign faculty, especially non-tenured foreign faculty.

### 6.4 Other Recommendations

There is a need for a mechanism that explains to actors, especially non-tenured foreign faculty, what their role is (if any) in terms of internationalizing the university at ACU and similar universities. An examination of the TGUP external promotional material indicates a clear message that internationalization includes foreign faculty. This definition should be conveyed to the principal actors, namely non-Japanese faculty at all institutions.

Moreover, non-tenured foreign faculty need to be told explicitly by the university that they are agents of internationalization. Non-tenured foreign faculty should have a sense of responsibility and ownership of their classes and their role on campus. This research suggests that this group of faculty is being used for internationalization as a façade. Japanese universities like ACU should develop a purposeful strategy alongside all faculty that is sustainable in terms of promoting internationalization to students, external actors and the community, thereby creating a definition of internationalization that is locally and internationally accepted in the future.

This study revealed that the Japanese universities' definition of internationalisation was not understood nor explained to the foreign faculty by their institution, including at ACU.

Universities also need to explain internationalization to Japanese university students. Many Japanese universities define internationalization by creating their own institutional version of the concept. More importantly, there was no mechanism that explains to actors, especially non-tenured foreign faculty, what their role is (if any) in terms of internationalizing the university. This resulted in foreign faculty at ACU contributing to internationalization in varying degrees, which has not been shown in previous research.

### 6.5 Personal Reflection and Strategies to Implement Recommendations

Before this research, I was unaware of the complexity of integrating an outside group into an existing community in a foreign country or how leadership at my local university viewed internationalization. I have learned that the term internationalization carries variations, subtleties in meaning and ideas, specifically how MEXT uses this term in relation to its policies that govern HEIs.

Prior to this thesis, I was unfamiliar with restrictions placed on faculty members in terms of realistically implementing internationalization and integration concepts into a university like ACU. I had wrongly assumed that I shared similar notions of internationalization and integration to those held by the university. In reality, ACU and similar universities valued different priorities in contrast to stated internationalization efforts. One of the most significant implications of this research undertaking on my professional practice was to undertake my own integration as foreign faculty in a lifelong journey that is multifaceted and complex – requiring a cosmopolitan mindset, experiences, competencies, and determination on my part. This requires me to be an active participant in integrating foreign faculty at ACU and similar universities.

On a personal professional level, instead of pretending not to be Japanese or speak Japanese nor having an understanding of the intricacies of Japanese culture, I should make it known to my foreign faculty colleagues and domestic staff that I can understand and speak Japanese and that I comprehend Japanese culture. Also, it can be beneficial to inform my students of this in the first class, particularly with low-level classes.

Additionally, I should actively demonstrate a knowledge of the Japanese language and culture as part of my daily interaction at ACU and within the classroom. There is a vast gap that I now realize exists between students and myself as a faculty member at ACU and at other universities. Given the hierarchal nature of Japanese culture and the social power that is often afforded instructors, I should strive to utilize this as a benefit rather than dismiss it as 'too Japanese' as I have done in the past. I now know through this thesis that I can enhance and deepen my relationship with students, as well as domestic and foreign colleagues. I plan to more fully embracing my Japaneseness along with my Canadian upbringing to better close the transactional distance and develop trust with students and colleagues to help nurture an environment fit for mutual integration.

### 6.5.1 Strategies to Implement Recommendations

The following are possible strategies that could be used to disseminate findings to decision-makers and colleagues relevant to this thesis. It is my goal to recommend structural and practical changes at ACU and other similar Japanese universities.

1. I plan to attend international and domestic conferences such as TESOL and JALT to present the findings of this thesis and network to connect with other like-minded academics. This would lead to a dialogue and shared ideas about reform and also the potential for collaborative research opportunities. ACU tenured faculty and administrators are known to attend these kinds

of conferences globally and the opportunity to interact in a professional capacity may allow for a frank discussion about policy direction with respect to the handling of foreign faculty.

2. At ACU, I intend to pursue a tenured track position in order to serve on junior committees and participate in faculty meetings that are closed to non-tenured faculty. This would allow an opportunity to more fully informed as to current and future policy decisions made by the university. Also, the opportunity would be afforded to join in department faculty development seminars, which would allow me to share findings from this research and present to faculty members across all disciplines.

3. To help fellow non-tenured foreign faculty, I plan to establish a community to aid the transition of new foreign faculty into life at ACU. As a long-term faculty member, I have extensive knowledge of the inner workings of ACU and can offer assistance to new hires. This may include mentoring, assistance with administrative duties and answering general questions.

4. I intend to publish the findings from the research in ACUs in-house journals and investigate opportunities to publish in international publications.

These strategies are the starting point for the implementation of the recommendations in an effort to affect positive change with respect to the implementation of internationalization policies around campus. The researcher notes that this will be a multi-year endeavour that will need to be periodically reviewed and assessed.

### 6.6 Study Limitations

This research has several limitations; all of the interview participants were all ACU faculty members within the same department. However, although the faculty members all held similar teaching positions, there were many variations within the case study, such as teaching experience, educational background, Japanese language ability and job titles. This helped to

mitigate some of the limitation. In contrast, the survey participants represented a vast cross-section of the foreign faculty at a wide selection of Japanese universities.

A further limitation relates to my positionality as a member of the non-tenured foreign faculty, thus having a dual role as both researcher and community member. As Dwyer and Buckle (2009) state, such a status may affect how the research is designed and directed through the researcher's lens and perspective, detracting from the analysis' impartiality and hindering its reliability. However, this insider status allowed me to establish common ground and gain access to potential participants by building on existing professional relationships, developing trust and cultural knowledge, without which this thesis could not have taken place.

Another limitation of this research was that only English-language documents were examined for evaluation as English was the language for every stage of this research (Rose & McKinley, 2018). I recognize that by excluding documents in Japanese, their analysis is also excluded from this research. I acknowledge that the English and Japanese versions of similar documents may differ in translation and tone (Rose & McKinley, 2018).

These impediments may have affected how the research was designed and undertaken but every effort was made to minimize their impact. Despite these limitations, the research was robust and able to explore these non-tenured foreign faculty communities' lived life experiences at ACU and similar universities through a broad range of topics and with the use of several data collection techniques. A study of the participants' insights into their integration and the internationalization of their universities helped conceptualize behaviour, feelings and perspectives through their statements at a macro- and micro-level.

## 6.7 Suggestions for Future Research

This research has highlighted several issues which would merit further research at the macro-, meso- and micro-levels.

### 6.7.1 At the macro-level:

It would be beneficial to investigate all non-Japanese faculty at similar universities to ACU, regardless of the language of instruction or the lingua franca used within the given department and institution. Also, there is a need to define the term 'foreign faculty,' thereby determining a framework that can be tested to establish a working model for future research. Government and institutional policies need to be further scrutinized to determine why this influential group of foreign teaching faculty has been left out of policy and relegated to irregular or part-time faculty at ACU and similar universities.

### 6.7.2 At the meso-level:

There should be further research undertaken to investigate why these policies are not available in English and other languages.

### 6.7.3 At the micro-level

There is also a need to directly address this group of non-tenured foreign faculty through a programme or policy that would lead to tenure-track positions.

Different departments within ACU should be examined to determine if there are consistencies from department to department, and explore how institutional policies are interpreted within different departments. The results could then be compared to similar

institutions in other Asian countries, such as in South Korea and China. To investigate and learn how different countries and regions address issues and barriers concerning non-tenured foreign faculty within other cultures and institutions would also be beneficial to furthering integration.

### 6.8 Closing Thoughts

This thesis examined the unique lived life experiences of foreign faculty at ACU and other universities with a focus on non-tenured foreign faculty. It must be noted that these lived life experiences have been voluntarily shared, analysed, re-analysed, and interpreted so that stakeholders at all levels could grasp the complexity that exists in creating a truly integrated and internationalized community within ACU.

The researcher's personal morphogenesis has not made me another person. I have related not to my professional self as a non-tenured foreign faculty member, but I have developed in new ways through this journey, personally and hopefully, as a catalyst for change within my community. I have drawn on my overall relationship to the Japanese community as an outsider who has chosen to live in Japan and become an active member of the general community, as well as an active member of academia at ACU and in Japan.

As Goodman (2016) states:

> "Internationalization" and "globalization" carry multiple meanings and are interpreted in varying ways by individual actors, sometimes in very different ways from those anticipated by the architects of the programmes themselves…exploring these interpretations… add greatly to our understanding of Japanese society and particularly Japanese higher education in the contemporary period (p. ix).

The hope is that this research will aid in the discussions that will lead to positive changes, enabling ACU and other Japanese HEIs to take advantage of the experience and talents of their

foreign faculty so that a fully integrated and effective Japanese university model can be created for the next generation of academic faculty.

(Word count: 54,043; permission was granted by the UoL to 55000-word limit)

## References

Ager, A., & Strang, A. (2008). Understanding integration: A conceptual framework. *Journal of Refugee Studies*, *21*(2), 166-191.

Aguillo, I., Bar-Ilan, J., Levene, M., & Ortega, J. (2010). Comparing university rankings. *Scientometrics*, *85*(1), 243-256.

Alleles, J. P. (2015). Japan's Global 30 Program: The push and pull factors of international student mobility. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, *13*(2), 55-65.

Alba, R., & Nee, V. (2009). *Remaking the American mainstream: Assimilation and contemporary immigration*. Cambridge, MA, Harvard University Press.

Altbach, P. G. (2007). Globalization and the university: Realities in an unequal world. In H. Perkin, J.J. Forest, & P. G. Altbach (Eds.), *International handbook of higher education* (pp. 121-139). Dordrecht: Springer.

Altbach, P. G., & Knight, J. (2007). The internationalization of higher education: Motivations and realities. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *11*(3-4), 290-305.

Altbach, P. G., Reisberg, L., & Rumbley, L. E. (2010). *Trends in global higher education: Tracking an academic revolution*. Boston, MA: UNESCO Publishing.

Altbach, P. G., & Yudkevich, M. (2017a). Twenty-first century mobility: The role of international faculty. *International Higher Education*, 90, 8-10.

Altbach, P. G., & Yudkevich, M. (2017b). International faculty in 21st-century universities: Themes and variations. In P. G. Altbach., M. Yudkevich., & L. E. Rumbley (Eds), *International Faculty in Higher Education: Comparative perspectives on recruitment, integration, and impact.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Allport, G. W. (1954). *The nature of prejudice.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Appleby, R. (2013). Desire in translation: White masculinity and TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly*, *47*(1), 122-147.

Appleby, R. (2014). White Western male teachers constructing academic identities in Japanese higher education. *Gender and Education*, *26*(7), 776-793.

Appleby, R. (2016). Researching privilege in language teacher identity. *TESOL Quarterly*, *50*(3), 755-768.

Arimoto, A., Cummings, W. K., Huang, F., & Shin, J. C. (Eds.). (2015). *The changing academic profession in Japan*. London, UK: Springer.

Arkoudis, S., & Tran, L. T. (2010). Writing blah, blah, blah: Lecturers' approaches and challenges in supporting international students. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, *22*(2), 169-178.

Asao, Y. (2011). Overview of non-regular employment in Japan. *Non-Regular Employment – Issues and Challenges Common to the Major Developed Countries, in Japanese Institute for Labour Policy and Training 2011 seminar on Non-Regular Employment, JILPT Report No. 10*: Retrieved from http://www.jil.go.jp/english/reports/documents/jilpt-reports/no.10.pdf

Baldwin, R. G., & Chronister, J. L. (2001). *Teaching without tenure: Policies and practices for a new era*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Barbaric, D. & Jones, G. (2017) International Faculty in Canada: Recruitment and Transition processes. In M. Yudkevich., P. G., Altbach, & L. E. Rumbley (Eds.), *International Faculty in Higher Education: Comparative Perspectives on Recruitment, Integration, and Impact*. New York: Routledge.

Barlow, F.K., Paolini, S., Pedersen, A., Hornsey, M.J., Radke, H.R., Harwood, J., Rubin, M. and Sibley, C.G., (2012). The contact caveat: Negative contact predicts increased prejudice more than positive contact predicts reduced prejudice. *Personality and social Psychology bulletin*, *38*(12), 1629-1643.

Baxter, P., & Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers. *The Qualitative Report*, *13*(4), 544-559.

Bazeley, P. (2018). *A practical introduction to mixed methods for business and management*. London, UK: SAGE Publications Limited.

Bergman, A., & Lindgren, M. (2018). Navigating between an emic and an etic approach in ethnographic research. Crucial aspects and strategies when communicating critical results to participants. *Ethnography and Education*, *13*(4), 477-489.

Bergquist, W. H., & Pawlak, K. (2008). *Engaging the six cultures of the academy: Revised and expanded edition of the four cultures of the academy*. San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons.

Berry, J. W. (2011). Integration and multiculturalism: Ways towards social solidarity. *Papers on Social Representations*, *20*(1), 2.2-2.21.

Bertrand, M., & Duflo, E. (2017). Field experiments on discrimination. In A. V. Banerjee, E. Duflo, & J. M. Gueron (Eds.), *Handbook of economic field experiments* (pp. 309-393). Oxford, UK: North-Holland.

Bloomgarden, A. H., & O'Meara, K. A. (2007). Faculty role integration and community engagement: Harmony or cacophony? *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, *13*(2), 5-18.

Blunt, C. (2018). Community Integration Assessment: Story of window on tool kit for community integration. Lancsshire.gov. UK.

Bocanegra-Valle, A. (2014). 'English is my default academic language': Voices from LSP scholars publishing in a multilingual journal. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 13(1), 65-77.

Bolton, K. (2008). English in Asia, Asian Englishes, and the issue of proficiency. *English Today*, *24*(2), 3-12.

Bokek-Cohen, Y. A., & Davidovich, N. (2010). The successful integration of foreign-born instructors in the academe: Lessons from Israel's largest public college. *Problems of Education in the 21st Century*, 20(1), 44-57.

Boone, H. N., & Boone, D. A. (2012). Analyzing Likert data. *Journal of extension*, *50*(2), 1-5.

Borzillo, S., Aznar, S., & Schmitt, A. (2011). A journey through communities of practice: How and why members move from the periphery to the core. *European Management Journal*, *29*(1), 25-42.

Bothwell, E. (2019). *Japanese universities 'closed to foreigners', say overseas staff.* Times Higher Education. *https://www.timeshighereducation.com/news/japanese-universities-closed-foreigners-say-overseas-staff.*

Bouchard, J. (2013). MEXT policies on EFL education: Challenges in linking ideology and policy statements. *Research bulletin of English teaching: JACET 北海道支部紀要*, (10), 47-73.

Bourdieu, P. (1986). The forms of capital. In J. G. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of theory and research for the sociology of education* (pp. 241-258). New York: Greenwood.

Bourke, B. (2014). Positionality: Reflecting on the research process. *The qualitative report*, *19*(33), 1-9.

Boyatzis, R. E. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development*. London: Sage.

Bramhall, R. (2014). Turning back the tide on contingency. *Academe*, *100*(5), 27-29.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2016). (Mis) conceptualising themes, thematic analysis, and other problems with Fugard and Potts' (2015) sample-size tool for thematic analysis. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, *19*(6), 739-743.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2019). Reflecting on reflexive thematic analysis. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise and Health*, *11*(4), 589-597.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2013). *Successful qualitative research: A practical guide for beginners*. London: London: Sage.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative research in psychology*, *3*(2), 77-101.

Braun V., Clarke V., Hayfield N., & Terry G. (2019) Thematic Analysis. In: P. Liamputtong. (Ed.), *Handbook of Research Methods in Health Social Sciences,* (pp. 843-860). Singapore: Springer.

Brotherhood, T., Hammond, C. D., & Kim, Y. (2020). Towards an actor-centered typology of internationalization: a study of junior international faculty in Japanese universities. *Higher Education*, *79*(3), 497-514.

Brown, H. (2018). English-medium instruction in Japanese universities: History and perspectives. In P. Clements, A. Krause, & P. Bennett (Eds.), *Language teaching in a global age: Shaping the classroom, shaping the world.* Tokyo: JALT.

Brown, J., & Duguid, P. (2000). Organizational learning and communities of practice: Toward a unified view of working, learning, and innovation. In E. L. Lesser, M. A. Fontaine and J. A. Slusher (Eds.), *Knowledge and communities* (pp. 99-121). Amsterdam: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Brown, T., Goodman, J., & Yasukawa, K. (2010). Academic casualization in Australia: Class divisions in the university. *Journal of Industrial Relations*, *52*(2), 169-182.

Burgess, C., Gibson, I., Klaphake, J., & Selzer, M. (2010). The 'Global 30' Project and Japanese higher education reform: An example of a 'closing in' or an 'opening up'? *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, *8*(4), 461-475.

Byun, K., Chu, H., Kim, M., Park, I., Kim, S., & Jung, J. (2011). English-medium teaching in Korean higher education: Policy debates and reality. *Higher Education*, *62*(4), 431-449.

Butler, C. (2019). The Ronin teacher: Making a living as a full-time part-timer at Japanese universities. In P. Wadden & C.C. Hale, (Eds.), *Teaching English at Japanese Universities: A New Handbook*. London: Routledge.

Castles, S., Korac, M., Vasta, E., & Vertovec, S. (2002). *Integration: Mapping the field.* Oxford University of Oxford Centre for Migration and Policy Research and Refugee Studies Centre.

Chakrabortty, A., & Weale, S. (2016, November 16). Universities accused of 'Importing Sports Direct Model for Lecturers' pay. *The Guardian*, Retrieved from https://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2016/nov/16/universities-accused-of-importing-sports-direct-model-for-lecturers-pay.

Chang, M. J. (2007). Beyond artificial integration: Reimagining cross-racial interactions among undergraduates. *New Directions for Student Services*, 120, 25-37.

Charmaz, K. (2014). *Constructing Grounded Theory 2nd Edition*. London, Sage.

Choudaha, R., & Van Rest, E. (2018). Envisioning pathways to 2030: Megatrends shaping the future of global higher education and international student mobility. Retrieved from http://bit.ly/Megatrends2030

Christ, O., Ullrich, J., & Wagner, U. (2008). The joint effects of positive and negative contact on attitudes and attitude strength. In *General Meeting of the European Association of Experimental Social Psychology, Opatija, Croatia*.

Clarke, V., & Braun, V. (2013). Teaching thematic analysis: Overcoming challenges and developing strategies for effective learning. *The Psychologist*, *26*(2), 120-123.

Clarke, V. and Braun, V. (2017). Thematic analysis. *The Journal of Positive Psychology,* 12(3), 297-298.

Clarke, V. & Braun, V. (2014) Thematic analysis. In A. C. Michalos (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of quality of life and well-being research* (6626-6628) Dordrecht, the Netherlands: Springer.

Coghlan, D. (2015). Integrating ethical challenges in practitioner research. *The All Ireland Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, *7*(2), 2351-2360.

Cohen, L. M., & Manion, L. L. & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research methods in education*. London, *UK: Routledge*.

Collins, J. M. (2008). Coming to America: Challenges for faculty coming to United States' universities. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, *32*(2), 179-188.

Corbin, J. S., & Strauss, A. A. 2008. *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (1998). *Quality inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). Research designs. *Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches* (3rd ed.). London: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2013). Steps in conducting a scholarly mixed methods study. DBER Speaker series. University of Nebraska Discipline-Based Education Research Group Retrieved from: http://digitalcommons.unl.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1047&context=dberspeakers

Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. L. P. (2018). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research.* (3rd Ed.) London: Sage.

Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. London: Sage.

Crowe, S., Cresswell, K., Robertson, A., Huby, G., Avery, A., & Sheikh, A. (2011). The case study approach. *BMC medical research methodology*, *11*(1), 1-9.

Crystal, D. (2010). *English as a global language*. (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cummings, W. K. (2015). The invisible academy: A US perspective on the Japanese academic profession. In A. Arimoto, W. K. Cummings, F. Huang, & J. C. Shin (Eds.), *The changing academic profession in Japan* (pp. 235-241). Dordrecht: Springer.

Davies, R. J., & Ikeno, O. (2002). *The Japanese mind*. Tokyo: Tuttle Publishing.

Deem, R., Mok, K. H., & Lucas, L. (2008). Transforming higher education in whose image? Exploring the concept of the 'world-class' university in Europe and Asia. *Higher Education Policy*, *21*(1), 83-97.

De Mente, B. L. (2003). *Kata: The Key to Understanding & Dealing with the Japanese!* Tokyo: Tuttle Publishing.

De Mente, B. L. (2011). *Japan's cultural code words: key terms that explain the attitudes and behavior of the Japanese*. Tokyo: Tuttle Publishing.

De Saxe, J. G., Bucknovitz, S., & Mahoney-Mosedale, F. (2020). The deprofessionalization of educators: An intersectional analysis of neoliberalism and education "reform". *Education and Urban Society*, *52*(1), 51-69.

Dixon, J., Durrheim, K., & Tredoux, C. (2005). Beyond the optimal contact strategy: A reality check for the contact hypothesis. *American Psychologist*, *60*(7), 697-711.

Dőrnyei, Z. (2003). *Questionnaires in second language research: Constructing, administering, and processing.* Mahwah. NJ: Eribaum Associates.

Dornyei, Z. (2007) *Research methods in applied linguistics: quantitative, qualitative and mixed methodologies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Dörnyei, Z., & Csizér, K. (2012). How to design and analyze surveys in second language acquisition research. In A. Mackey, & S. Gass. (Eds.), *Research methods in second language acquisition: A practical guide*, (pp. 74-94). Hoboken: Blackwell Publishing.

Deters, P. (2006). Immigrant teachers in Canada: Learning the language and culture of a new professional community. In *AELFE Paper Conference*. Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto.

Dijker, A. J. (1987). Emotional reactions to ethnic minorities. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *17*(3), 305-325.

Doi, T. (2014) *The Key analysis of Japanese behavior: The anatomy of dependence*. New York. NY: Kodansha.

Doi, T. (1971). *The anatomy of dependence*. Tokyo: Kodansha.

Doyon, P. (2001). A review of higher education reform in modern Japan. *Higher Education*, *41*(4), 443-470.

Dwyer, S. C., & Buckle, J. L. (2009). The space between: On being an insider-outsider in qualitative research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, *8*(1), 54-63.

Eades, J. S. (2016). Dimensions of internationalization: Some Japanese case studies. In J. Mock., H. Kawamura, & N. Naganuma (Eds.) *The impact of internationalization on Japanese higher education* (pp. 69-90). Boston, Springer.

Eades, J. S., Goodman, R., & Hada, Y. (2005). *The 'Big Bang'in Japanese Universities: The 2004 reforms and the dynamics of change*. Melbourne: Trans Pacific Press.

Eckert, P., & McConnell-Ginet, S. (1992). Think practically and look locally: Language and gender as community-based practice. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, *21*(1), 461-488.

Ehrenreich, S. (2018). Communities of practice and English as a lingua franca. In J. Jenkins, W. Baker, & M. Dewey (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English as a lingua franca* (pp. 37-50). Oxon: Routledge.

Everett, J. A., (2013). Intergroup contact theory: Past, present, and future. *In- Mind*, *2*(17), 1-6.

Engward, H., & Davis, G. (2015). Being reflexive in qualitative grounded theory: discussion and application of a model of reflexivity. *Journal of advanced nursing*, *71*(7), 1530-1538.

Fang, F. (2018). Ideology and identity debate of English in China: Past, present and future. *Asian Englishes*, *20*(1), 15-26.

Fang, F. G. (2017). World Englishes or English as a Lingua Franca: Where does English in China stand?: An ideological negotiation and attitudinal debate of the use and function of English in the Chinese context. *English Today*, *33*(1), 19-24.

Feldman, M. D., Arean, P. A., Marshall, S. J., Lovett, M., & O'Sullivan, P. (2010). Does mentoring matter: results from a survey of faculty mentees at a large health sciences university. *Medical education online*, *15*(1), 1-8.

Fischer, L., Schimmel, D., & Stellman, L. (2007). *Teachers and the law*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon/Longman Publishing.

Froese, F. J., Peltokorpi, V., & Ko, K. A. (2012). The influence of intercultural communication on cross-cultural adjustment and work attitudes: Foreign workers in South Korea. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, *36*(3), 331-342.

Gahungu, A. (2011). Integration of foreign-born faculty in academia: foreignness as an asset. *International journal of educational leadership preparation*, *6*(1), 1-21.

Galloway, N., Numajiri, T., & Rees, N. (2020). The 'internationalisation', or 'Englishisation', of higher education in East Asia. *Higher Education*, *80*(3), 395-414.

Gaston, N., & Kishi, T. (2007). Part-time workers doing full-time work in Japan. *Journal of the Japanese and International Economies*, *21*(4), 435-454.

Gahungu, A. (2011). Integration of foreign-born faculty in academia: foreignness as an asset. *International journal of educational leadership preparation*, *6*(1), 1-21.

Ghazarian, P. G., & Youhne, M. S. (2015). Exploring intercultural pedagogy: evidence from international faculty in South Korean higher education. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *19*(5), 476-490.

Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory*. New York: Aldine: Weidenfeld and Nicholson.

Goodman, R. (2016). Foreword. In J. Mock, H. Kawamura, & N. Naganuma (Eds.), *The impact of internationalization on Japanese higher education* (pp. vii-ix). Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Goodman, R. (2010). The rapid redrawing of boundaries in Japanese higher education. *Japan Forum,* 22(1), 65-87.

Goodman, R. (2005). *W (h) ither the Japanese university? An introduction to the 2004 higher education reforms in Japan.* In J. Eades, R. Goodman, & Y. Hada (Eds.), *The 'Big Bang' in Japanese higher education: The 2004 reforms and the dynamics of change* (pp. 1-30). Melbourne: Trans Pacific Press.

Goodman, R. (2007). The concept of Kokusaika and Japanese educational reform. *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, *5*(1), 71-87.

Gray, D. E. (2014). *Doing research in the real world*. London: Sage.

Gress, D. R., & Ilon, L. (2009). Successful integration of foreign faculty into Korean universities: A proposed framework. *KEDI Journal of Educational Policy*, *6*(2) 183-204.

Grünzweig, W., & Rinehart, N. (Eds.). (2002). *Rockin' in red square: Critical approaches to international education in the age of cyberculture*. Münster, Germany: Lit Verlag.

Guba, E. G. (Ed.). (1990). *The paradigm dialog*. London: Sage.

Guest, G., Bunce, A., & Johnson, L. (2006). How many interviews are enough? An experiment with data saturation and variability. *Field Methods*, *18*(1), 59-82.

Guest, G., MacQueen, K. M. & Namey, E. E. (2012). Introduction to applied thematic analysis. In G., Guest, K. M., MacQueen, & E.E., Namey. (Eds.), *Applied thematic analysis* (pp. 3-20). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Hamid, M. O., Nguyen, H. T. M., & Baldauf Jr, R. B. (2013). Medium of instruction in Asia: Context, processes and outcomes. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, *14*(1), 1-15.

Hale, C.C. and Wadden, P., (2019). In (Eds.). *Teaching English at Japanese Universities: A New Handbook*. London: Routledge.

Hashimoto, K. (2007). Japan's language policy and the "lost decade". In A. B. M. Tsui & J. W. Tollefson (Eds.), *Language policy, culture, and identity in Asian contexts*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Hashimoto, K. (2013). 'English-only', but not a medium-of-instruction policy: The Japanese way of internationalising education for both domestic and overseas students. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, *14*(1), 16-33.

Hashimoto, K. (2009). Cultivating "Japanese who can use English": Problems and contradictions in government policy. *Asian Studies Review*, *33*(1), 21-42.

Haug, M. R. (1972). Deprofessionalization: an alternate hypothesis for the future. *The Sociological Review*, *20*(1), 195-211.

Hauptman Komotar, M. (2019). Global university rankings and their impact on the internationalisation of higher education. *European Journal of Education*, *54*(2), 299-310.

Hazelkorn, E. (2013). World-class universities or world-class systems? Rankings and higher education policy choices. Rankings and accountability in higher education: Uses and misuses. In P. Marope, P. Wells, & E. Hazelkorn, (Eds.), *Rankings and accountability in higher education: Uses and misuses*. (pp. 71-94). Paris: Unesco Publishing.

Heckmann, F. (2006). Integration and integration policies: IMISCOE network feasibility study. Bamberg: European Forum for Migration Studies: Retrieved from http://nbn-resolving.de/urn:nbn:de:0168-ssoar-192953

Hewstone, M., & Swart, H. (2011). Fifty-odd years of inter-group contact: From hypothesis to integrated theory. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *50*(3), 374-386.

Hitchcock, G., & Hughes, D. (1995). *Research and the teacher: A qualitative introduction to school-based research*. London: Psychology Press.

Ho, H. F., Lin, M. H., & Yang, C. C. (2015). Goals, strategies, and achievements in the internationalization of higher education in Japan and Taiwan. *International Education Studies*, *8*(3), 55-65.

Hollenback, M. (2019). The Expected and Unexpected Failures of the Global 30 Program. *Kobe City University of Foreign Studies Research Annual Report: (Journal of Research Institute*), 59 (1), 79-98.

Hooper, D. (2019). From 'McEnglish'to the'Holy Grail': Transitions between Eikaiwa and University Teaching. *TESL-EJ*, *23*(1), 1-17.

Hooper, D. & Hashimoto, N. (2020). *Teacher Narratives from the Eikaiwa Classroom: Moving Beyond "McEnglish".* Hong Kong: Candlin & Mynard.

Horan, W., & O'Regan, B. (2021). Developing a Practical Framework of Sustainability Indicators Relevant to All Higher Education Institutions to Enable Meaningful International Rankings. Sustainability, 13(2), 629-645.

Horie, M. (2002). The internationalization of higher education in Japan in the 1990s: A reconsideration. *Higher Education*, *43*(1), 65-84.

Huang, F. (2015). Building the world-class research universities: A case study of China. *Higher Education*, *70*(2), 203-215.

Huang, F. (2018a). Foreign faculty at Japanese universities: Profiles and motivations. *Higher Education Quarterly*, *72*(3), 237-249.

Huang, F. (2018b). International faculty at Japanese universities: their demographic characteristics and work roles. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, *19*(2), 263-272.

Huang, F. (2009). The internationalization of the academic profession in Japan: A quantitative perspective. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *13*(2), 143-158.

Huang, F. (2017). *Who are they and why did they move to Japan? An analysis of international faculty at universities* (pp. 1-22). London: Centre for Global higher Education.

Huang, F., Daizen, T., & Kim, Y. (2019). Challenges facing international faculty at Japanese universities: Main findings from the 2017 national survey. *International Journal of Educational Development*, *71*(102103), 1-8.

Hyland, K. (2016). Academic publishing and the myth of linguistic injustice. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 31(1), 58-69.

Ishikawa, M. (2011), Redefining internationalization in higher education: Global 30 and the making of global universities in Japan. In D. Willis, & J. Rappleye (Eds.), *Reimagining Japanese education* (pp. 193-223). Oxford: Symposium Books.

Ivancheva M (2020b) The casualization, digitalization, and outsourcing of academic labour: a wake-up call for trade unions. Focaal Blog 20 March. Retrieved from https://www.focaalblog.com/2020/03/20/mariyaivancheva-the-casualization-digitalization-and-outsourcing-of-academic-labour-a-wake-up-call-fortrade-unions/

Ivancheva, M. (2020a). Unbundling: a new gendered frontier of exclusion and exploitation in the neoliberal university. *Journal of New Materialist Research*, *1*, 80-109.

Japan Research Career Information Network (n.d) Retrieved from https://jrecin.jst.go.jp/seek/SeekTop?fn=2&ln=1

Jawitz, J. (2009). Academic identities and communities of practice in a professional discipline. *Teaching in Higher Education*, *14*(3), 241-251.

Jenkins, J. (2011). Accommodating (to) ELF in the international university. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *43*(4), 926-9ehr

Jenkins, J. (2012). English as a Lingua Franca from the classroom to the classroom. *ELT journal*, *66*(4), 486-494.

Jenkins, J., Baker, W., & Dewey, M. (Eds.). (2018). *The Routledge handbook of English as a lingua franca*. London: Routledge.

Joffe, H. (2012). Thematic Analysis. In D. Harper & A. Thompson (Eds.), *Qualitative Research Methods in Mental Health and Psychotherapy: A Guide for Students and Practitioners* (pp. 209-223) Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.

Jeon, M., & Lee, J. (2006). Hiring native-speaking English teachers in East Asian countries. *English Today*, *22*(4), 53-58.

Jones, W. A., Hutchens, N. H., Hulbert, A., Lewis, W. D., & Brown, D. M. (2017). Shared governance among the new majority: Non-tenure track faculty eligibility for election to university faculty senates. *Innovative Higher Education*, *42*(5-6), 505-519.

Kachru, B.B. (1996). World Englishes: Agony and ecstasy. *Journal of Aesthetic Education* 30(2), 135-155.

Kanuha, V. K. (2000). “Being” native versus “going native”: Conducting social work research as an insider. *Social Work*, *45*(5), 439-447.

Kim, E. C. (2015). International professors in China: Prestige maintenance and making sense of teaching abroad. *Current Sociology*, *63*(4), 604-620.

Kim, S. K. (2016). Western faculty 'flight risk' at a Korean university and the complexities of internationalisation in Asian higher education. *Comparative Education*, *52*(1), 78-90.

Kim, T. (2017). Academic mobility, transnational identity capital, and stratification under conditions of academic capitalism. *Higher Education*, *73*(6), 981-997.

Kirkpatrick, A. (Ed.). (2020). *The Routledge handbook of world Englishes*. New York: Routledge.

Klaphake, J. (2010, March 30) A foreigner-friendly field of dreams? International faculty, students must be valued, not treated as visitors. *Japan Times.* Retrieved from https://www.japantimes.co.jp/community/2010/03/30/issues/a-foreigner-friendly-field-of-dreams/#.WxTqIlOFPUI (accessed June 5, 2018).

Knight, J. (2015). Internationalization: A decade of changes and challenges. *International Higher Education*, 50(1), 6-8.

Knight, J. (2008). *Higher Education in Turmoil: The Changing world of Internationalization.* Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Knight, J. (2003a). Interview with Jane Knight. *IMHE info*, *1*(2).

Knight, J. (2003b). Updated definition of internationalization. *International higher education*, (33), 2-3.

Kobayashi, T. (1986). The internationalisation of Japanese education. *Comparative Education*, *22*(1), 65-71.

Krieger, D. (2005). Teaching ESL versus EFL: principles and practices. Retrieved from: http://silviaspence.tripod.com/sitebuildercontent/sitebuilderfiles/teflarticle.htm

Kriner, B. A., Coffman, K. A., Adkisson, A. C., Putman, P. G., & Monaghan, C. H. (2015). From students to scholars: The transformative power of communities of practice. *Adult Learning*, *26*(2), 73-80.

Kudo K., Hashimoto H. (2011) Internationalization of Japanese Universities: Current Status and Future Directions. In: Marginson S., Kaur S., Sawir E. (eds) *Higher Education in the Asia-Pacific. Higher Education Dynamics*, vol 36. Dordrecht: Springer.

Kubota, R. (2002). The impact of globalization on language teaching in Japan. In *Globalization and language teaching* (pp. 23-38). London: Routledge.

Kubota, R. (2015). Paradoxes of learning English in multilingual Japan: Envisioning education for border-crossing communication. In I. Nakane, E. Otsuji, & W. S. Armour (Eds.), *Languages and identities in a transitional Japan: From internationalization to globalization* (pp. 59–77). New York, NY: Routledge.

Kubota, R., & McKay, S. (2009). Globalization and language learning in rural Japan: The role of English in the local linguistic ecology. *Tesol Quarterly*, *43*(4), 593-619.

Kuroda, M., Sugimura, M., Kitamura, Y., & Asada, S. (2018). Internationalization of higher education and student mobility in Japan and Asia. *Background paper prepared for the*, *2018 Global Education Monitoring Report*. New York. United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

Lahman, M. K., Rodriguez, K. L., Moses, L., Griffin, K. M., Mendoza, B. M., & Yacoub, W. (2015). A rose by any other name is still a rose? Problematizing pseudonyms in research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, *21*(5), 445-453.

Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning, and identity*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lebra, T. S. (2004). *The Japanese self in cultural logic*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.

Leong, P. (2017). English-medium instruction in Japanese universities: Policy implementation and constraints. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, *18*(1), 57-67.

Leyi, W. (2020). World Englishes (WE) and English as Lingua Franca (ELF): Implications for English Teaching and Learning.*International Journal of Information and Education Technology*, *10*(5), 389-393.

Li, L. C., Grimshaw, J. M., Nielsen, C., Judd, M., Coyte, P. C., & Graham, I. D. (2009). Evolution of Wenger's concept of community of practice. *Implementation Science*, *4*(1), 11-19.

Lin, P. L. (2019). Trends of internationalization in China's higher education: Opportunities and challenges. *US-China Education Review*, *9*(1), 1-12.

Lynch, K., & Ivancheva, M. (2015). Academic freedom and the commercialisation of universities: a critical ethical analysis. *Ethics in Science and Environmental Politics*, *15*(1), 71-85.

Macaro, E., Curle, S., Pun, J., An, J., & Dearden, J. (2018). A systematic review of English medium instruction in higher education. *Language Teaching*, *51*(1), 36-76.

Malterud, K. (2001). Qualitative research: Standards, challenges and guidelines. *The Lancet, 358*(9280) 483-488.

Marinoni, G., Van't Land, H., & Jensen, T. (2020). The impact of Covid-19 on higher education around the world. *IAU Global Survey Report*.

Marginson, S. (2014a). Academic freedom: A global comparative approach. *Frontiers of Education in China*, *9*(1), 24-41.

Marginson, S. (2014b). University rankings and social science. *European Journal of Education*, *49*(1), 45-59.

Marginson, S., & Van der Wende, M. (2007). To rank or to be ranked: The impact of global rankings in higher education. *Journal of studies in international education*, 11(3-4), 306-329.

Maxwell, J. A. (2013). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

McKay, C. (2018). The Value of Contact: Unpacking Allport's Contact Theory to Support Inclusive Education. *Palaestra*, *32*(1), 21-25.

McNiff, J., & Whitehead, J. (2005). Teachers as educational theorists: Transforming epistemological hegemonies. *British Educational Research Association Annual Conference.* Wales: University of Glamorgan.

McVeigh, B. J. (2004). Foreign language instruction in Japanese higher education: The humanistic vision or nationalist utilitarianism? *Arts and Humanities in Higher Education*, *3*(2), 211-227.

McVeigh, B. J. (2002). *Japanese higher education as myth*. Armonk: M.E. Sharpe.

Melitz, J. (2018). English as a lingua franca: Facts, benefits and costs. *The World Economy*, *41*(7), 1750-1774.

Meixner, C., Kruck, S. E., & Madden, L. T. (2010). Inclusion of part-time faculty for the benefit of faculty and students. *College Teaching*, *58*(4), 141-147.

MEXT (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science, and Technology) (2009) *Global 30 Project: Establishing university network for internationalization.* Retrieved from http://www.mext.go.jp/en/policy/education/highered/title02/detail02/sdetail02/1373894.htm; https://www.mext.go.jp/component/a_menu/education/detail/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2017/03/30/1383779_06.pdf

MEXT (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Japan). (2008). *Higher Education in Japan*. Retrieved from: http://www.mext.go.jp/list_001/list_016/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2010/09/08/mext_2010_e.pdf

MEXT (2009) (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Japan). Retrieved from http://www.mext.go.jp/component/a_menu/education/detail/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2017/03/30/1383779_06.pdf

MEXT (2011). *Higher education bureau. Higher education in Japan.* Retrieved from http://www.mext.go.jp/en/policy/education/highered/title03/detail03/1374111.htm

MEXT (n.d.). *30000 Foreign Students Plan. Study in Japan Comprehensive Guide*. Retrieved from https://www.studyjapan.go.jp/en/toj/toj09e.html

MEXT (2014a). *Top Global University Japan.* Retrieved from https://tgu.mext.go.jp/en/index.html

MEXT (2014b) Report on the Future Improvement and Enhancement of English Education: Five Recommendations on the English Education Reform Plan Responding to the Rapid Globalization. Retrieved from http://www.mext.go.jp/en/news/topics/detail/1372625.htm

MEXT (2012). *Re-Inventing Japan Project: Inter-University Exchange Project.* Retrieved from http://www.mext.go.jp/en/policy/education/highered/title02/detail02/sdetail02/1373893.htm on October 10, 2018.

MEXT. (2013). *English Education Reform Plan corresponding to Globalization*. Retrieved from:http://www.mext.go.jp/en/news/topics/detail/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2014/01/23/1343591_1.pdf

MEXT (2014). *Selection for the FY2004 Top Global University Project.* Retrieved from http://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/houdou/26/09/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2014/10/07/1352218_02.pdf

MEXT (2017). [Homepage]. Retrieved from http://www.mext.go.jp/en/

MEXT. (2017). Daigaku ni okeru kyouikunaiyou to no kaikakujokyou (Heisei 28 nen ban) [Regarding the current situation of educational contents at universities (as of 2015)]. Retrieved from http:// www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/koutou/daigaku/04052801/1398426.htm

MEXT (2018). [Homepage]. Retrieved from http://www.mext.go.jp/en/

MEXT (2020). Support for Internationalization of Universities. https://www.mext.go.jp/en/policy/education/highered/title02/detail02/1373875.htm

Mihut, G., de Gayardon, A., & Rudt, Y. (2017). The long-term mobility of international faculty: a literature review. In M. Yudkevich, P. G. Altbach, & L.E. Rumbley (Eds) *International Faculty in Higher Education: comparative perspectives on recruitment, integration, impact.* (pp. 25-41). Oxon: Routledge.

Miled, N. (2019). Muslim researcher researching Muslim youth: Reflexive notes on critical ethnography, positionality and representation. *Ethnography and Education*, *14*(1), 1-15.

Millot, B. (2015). International rankings: Universities vs. higher education systems. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 40 (1), 156-165.

Milner IV, H. R. (2007). Race, culture, and researcher positionality: Working through dangers seen, unseen, and unforeseen. *Educational researcher*, *36*(7), 388-400.

Mishra, P., Pandey, C. M., Singh, U., Gupta, A., Sahu, C., & Keshri, A. (2019). Descriptive statistics and normality tests for statistical data. *Annals of cardiac anaesthesia*, *22*(1), 67.

Mock, J., Kawamura, H., & Naganuma, N. (2016). *The impact of internationalization on Japanese higher education*. Rotterdam: Springer.

Mok, K. H., Xiong, W., Ke, G., & Cheung, J. O. W. (2021). Impact of COVID-19 pandemic on international higher education and student mobility: Student perspectives from mainland China and Hong Kong. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 105 (1), 2-29.

Monaghan, C. H. (2011). Communities of practice: A learning strategy for management education. *Journal of Management Education*, *35*(3), 428-453.

Morris, M. W., Leung, K., Ames, D., & Lickel, B. (1999). Views from inside and outside: Integrating emic and etic insights about culture and justice judgment. *Academy of management review*, *24*(4), 781-796.

Munene, I. I. (2014). Outsiders within: isolation of international faculty in an American university. *Research in Post-Compulsory Education*, *19*(4), 450-467.

Murata, K., & Jenkins, J. (2009). *Global Englishes in Asian contexts*. New York: Springer.

Nadolny, A., & Ryan, S. (2015). McUniversities revisited: a comparison of university and McDonald's casual employee experiences in Australia. *Studies in Higher Education*, *40*(1), 142-157.

Nagatomo, D. H. (2012). *Exploring Japanese university English teachers' professional identity*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Nagatomo, D. H. (2016). *Identity, gender and teaching English in Japan*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Nee, V., & Alba, R. (2012). Rethinking assimilation theory for a new era of immigration. In C. Suarez-Orozco, M. Suarez-Orozco, D. Baolian, & D. Qin-Hilliard (Eds.), *The new immigration: An interdisciplinary reader,* (pp. 49-80). New York: Routledge.

Nettelbeck, C., Hajek, J., & Woods, A. (2012). Re-professionalizing the profession: countering juniorization and casualization in the tertiary languages sector. *Local-Global: Identity, Security, Community*, 9(1), 60-75.

Ninomiya, A., Knight, J., & Watanabe, A. (2009). The past, present, and future of internationalization in Japan. *International Education*, *13*(2), 117-124.

Niyubahwe, A., Mukamurera, J., & Jutras, F. (2013). Professional integration of immigrant teachers in the school system: A literature review. *McGill Journal of Education/Revue des sciences de l'éducation de McGill*, *48*(2), 279-296.

Novak, J. A., & Rogan, P. M. (2010). Social integration in employment settings: Application of intergroup contact theory. *Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities*, *48*(1), 31-51.

Oda M. (2019) Behind the Sand Castle: Implementing English Language Teaching Policies in Japan. In: Gao X. (Ed) *Second Handbook of English Language Teaching. Springer International Handbooks of Education.* (pp. 51-71). Cham, Springer.

O'Hara, S. (2009). Vital and overlooked: The role of faculty in internationalizing US campuses. *Meeting America's Global Education Challenge*, *6*, 38-45.

Okada, A. (2005). A history of the Japanese university. In J. Eades, R. Goodman, & Y. Hada (Eds.), *The 'Big Bang' in Japanese higher education: The 2004 reforms and the dynamics of c.hange* (pp. 32-51). Melbourne: Trans Pacific Press.

Opdenakker, R. (2006). Advantages and disadvantages of four interview techniques in qualitative research. *Qualitative Social Research*. Retrieved from http://www.qualitative-research.net/fqs-texte/ 4-06/06-4-11-e.htm.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Leech, N. L., & Collins, K. M. (2012). Qualitative Analysis Techniques for the Review of the Literature. *The Qualitative Report*, *17*(28), 1-28.

Östlund, U., Kidd, L., Wengström, Y., & Rowa-Dewar, N. (2011). Combining qualitative and quantitative research within mixed method research designs: a methodological review. *International journal of nursing studies*, *48*(3), 369-383.

Ota, H. (2018). Internationalization of higher education: Global trends and Japan's challenges. *Educational Studies in Japan*, *12*, 91-105.

Otomo, R. (2016). New form of national language policy? The case of the economic partnership agreement (EPA) in Japan. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, *25*(5-6), 735-742.

Paolini, S., Harwood, J., & Rubin, M. (2010). Negative intergroup contact makes group memberships salient: Explaining why intergroup conflict endures. *Personality and social Psychology bulletin*, *36*(12), 1723-1738.

Pan, L., & Block, D. (2011). English as a "global language" in China: An investigation into learners' and teachers' language beliefs. *System*, *39*(3), 391-402.

Patton, M., Q. (2015). Qualitative research and evaluation methods. (4th ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Pennycook, A. (2008). English as a language always in translation. *European Journal of English Studies*, *12*(1), 33-47.

Petersen, K., & Gencel, C. (2013, October). Worldviews, research methods, and their relationship to validity in empirical software engineering research. In *2013 Joint Conference of the 23rd International Workshop on Software Measurement and the 8th International Conference on Software Process and Product Measurement* (pp. 81-89).

Pettigrew, T. F. (1998). Intergroup contact theory. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *49*(1), 65-85.

Pettigrew, T. F. (1975). The racial integration of the schools. In T.F. Pettigrew (Ed) *The Racial discrimination in the United States* (224-239). New York: Harper & Row.

Pettigrew, T. F., Tropp, L. R., Wagner, U., & Christ, O. (2011). Recent advances in intergroup contact theory. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, *35*(3), 271-280.

Phan. H. L. (2013). Issues surrounding English, the internationalisation of higher education and national cultural identity in Asia: A focus on Japan. *Critical Studies in Education*, *54*(2), 160-175.

Pherali, T. J. (2012). Academic mobility, language, and cultural capital: The experience of transnational academics in British higher education institutions. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *16*(4), 313-333.

Phillimore, J. (2012). Implementing integration in the UK: Lessons for integration theory, policy and practice. *Policy & Politics*, *40*(4), 525-545.

Poole, G. S. (2005). Reform of the university English language teaching curriculum in Japan: A case study. In J. Eades, R. Goodman, and Y. Hada (Eds.), *The 'big bang' in Japanese higher education: The 2004 Reforms and dynamics of change* (pp. 242-273). Melbourne: Trans Pacific Press.

Poole, G. S. (2010). *The Japanese professor an ethnography of a university faculty*. Boston: Sense.

QS World University Rankings (2020), Retrieved from https://www.topuniversities.com/university-rankings/world-university-rankings/2020

Rabionet, S. E. (2011). How I learned to design and conduct semi-structured interviews: An ongoing and continuous journey. *The Qualitative Report*, *16*(2), 563-566.

Rattray, J., & Jones, M. C. (2007). Essential elements of questionnaire design and development. *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, *16*(2), 234-243.

Ravitch, S. M. (2014). The transformative power of taking an inquiry stance on practice: Practitioner research as narrative and counter-narrative. *Perspectives on Urban Education*, *11*(1), 5-10.

Rhoads, R. A., & Hu, J. (2012). The internationalization of faculty life in China. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, *32*(3), 351-365.

Richardson, J., Wardale, D., & Lord, L. (2019). The 'double-edged sword'of a sessional academic career. *Higher Education Research & Development*, *38*(3), 623-637.

Rivers, D. J. (2010). Ideologies of internationalisation and the treatment of diversity within Japanese higher education. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, *32*(5), 441-454.

Robinson, V. (1998). Defining and measuring successful refugee integration. In *Proceedings of ECRE International conference on Integration of Refugees in Europe.* November. Brussels.

Robson, C., & McCartan, K. (2016). *Real world research*. West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons.

Rose, A. & Leisyte, L. (2017) Integrating international academic staff into the local academic context in Lithuania and Estonia. In M.Yudkevich., P. G., Altbach, & L. E. Rumbley (Eds.), *International faculty in higher education: Comparative perspectives on recruitment, integration, and impact*. New York: Routledge.

Rose, H., & McKinley, J. (2018). Japan's English-medium instruction initiatives and the globalization of higher education. *Higher Education*, *75*(1), 111-129.

Ryan, F., Coughlan, M., & Cronin, P. (2009). Interviewing in qualitative research: The one-to-one interview. *International Journal of Therapy and Rehabilitation*, *16*(6), 309-314.

Safón, V. (2019). Inter-ranking reputational effects: An analysis of the academic ranking of World Universities and the Times Higher Education World University Rankings reputational relationship. *Scientometrics*, *121*(2), 897-915.

Saldaña, J. (2016). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. London: Sage.

Sayer, A. (2000). *Realism and social science*. London: Sage.

Schein, E. H. (2010). *Organizational Culture and Leadership* (4th ed.). San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons.

Schlueter, E., & Scheepers, P. (2010). The relationship between outgroup size and anti-outgroup attitudes: A theoretical synthesis and empirical test of group threat-and intergroup contact theory. *Social Science Research*, *39*(2), 285-295.

Schmidt, C. (2010). Systemic discrimination as a barrier for immigrant teachers. *Diaspora, Indigenous, and Minority Education*, *4*(4), 235-252.

Seargeant, P. (Ed.). (2011). *English in Japan in the era of globalization*. New York: Springer.

Seidlhofer, B. (2005). English as a lingua franca. *ELT journal*, *59*(4), 339-341.

Shin, J. C. (2015). Similar but different worlds: A Korean perspective on the Japanese academic profession. In A. Arimoto, F. Huang, W.K. Cummings, & J.C. Shin (Eds) *The changing academic profession in Japan* (pp. 243-251). Cham: Springer.

Siekkinen, T., Kuoppala, K., Pekkola, E., & Välimaa, J. (2017). Reciprocal commitment in academic careers? Finnish implications and international trends. *European Journal of Higher Education*, *7*(2), 120-135.

Silverman, D. (2013). *Doing qualitative research: A practical handbook* (4th ed.). London, UK: Sage.

Simon-Maeda, A. (2004). The complex construction of professional identities: Female EFL educators in Japan speak out. *Tesol Quarterly*, *38*(3), 405-436.

Spencer, S., & Charsley, K. (2016). Conceptualising integration: a framework for empirical research, taking marriage migration as a case study. *Comparative Migration Studies.* Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1186/s40878-016- 0035-x

Smith, W., Philpot, R., Gerdin, G., Schenker, K., Linnér, S., Larsson, L., Mordal Moen, K. & Westlie, K., (2020). School HPE: Its mandate, responsibility and role in educating for social cohesion. *Sport, Education and Society*, 1-14.

Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Strongman, L. (2017). Language evolution, acquisition, adaptation and change. In J. Xiaoming (Ed.), *Sociolinguistics – Interdisciplinary perspective (pp. 17-31).* Retrieved from https://www.intechopen.com/books/sociolinguistics-terdisciplinary-perspectives/language-evolution-acquisition-adaptation-and-change

Stringer, E. (2018). Internationalization in higher education. In E. Stringer., M. Wang., D. Laurence., & A. Bordilovskaya (Eds.), *Internationalization Within Higher Education: Perspectives from Japan*. Singapore: Springer.

Stringer, E., Wang, M., Laurence, D., & Bordilovskaya, A. (2018). *Internationalization Within Higher Education: Perspectives from Japan*. Singapore: Springer.

Swartz, D. (2012). *Culture and power: The sociology of Pierre Bourdieu*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Tamrat, W. (2019). The Challenges of Attracting and Retaining International Faculty. *International Higher Education*, (98), 15-16.

Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (1998). Mixed methodology: Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Teichler, U. (2019). The academics and their institutional environment in Japan–A view from outside. *Contemporary Japan*, *31*(2), 234-263.

Thompson, D. (2015). A world without work: For centuries, experts have predicted that machines would make workers obsolete. That moment may finally be arriving. Could that be a good thing. *The Atlantic.* Retrieved from https://www.theatlantic.com/magazine/archive/2015/07/ world-without-work/395294/

Thornbury, S. (2002). Unbearable lightness. *ELT Journal*, *55*(4), 397-402.

Tight, M. (2021). Globalization and internationalization as frameworks for higher education research. *Research Papers in Education*, *36*(1), 52-74.

Tight, M. (2012). *Researching higher education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Education.

Times Higher Education Ranking (2019). Retrieved from https://www.timeshighereducation.com/content/world-university-rankings

Tong, A., Flemming, K., McInnes, E., Oliver, S., & Craig, J. (2012). Enhancing transparency in reporting the synthesis of qualitative research: ENTREQ. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*, *12*(1), 181-191.

Toren, N. (1975). Deprofessionalization and its sources: A preliminary analysis. *Sociology of work and occupations*, *2*(4), 323-337.

Tucker, J. (2018). Japanese Confucian philosophy. *The Stanford encyclopedia of philosophy, Stanford University.* Retrieved from https://plato.stanford.edu/entries/japanese-confucian/

University of Manchester (2018) *An academic career*. Retrieved from http://www.academiccareer.manchester.ac.uk/about/

University of Liverpool (2020) *Research integrity*. Retrieved from https://www.liverpool.ac.uk/research-integrity/research-ethics/

Vallance, M. (2008). Beyond policy: Strategic actions to support ICT integration in Japanese schools. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, *24*(3), 275-293.

Volet, S. E., & Tan-Quigley, A. (1999). Interactions of Southeast Asian students and administrative staff at university in Australia: The significance of reciprocal understanding. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, *21*(1), 95-115.

Wadden, P., & Hale, C. C. (Eds.). (2019). *Teaching English at Japanese Universities: A New Handbook*. New York, NY.: Routledge.

Wang, C., Huang, F., Stathi, S., & Vezzali, L. (2020). Positive and negative intergroup contact and willingness to engage in intergroup interactions among majority (Han) and minority (Uyghur) group members in China: The moderating role of social dominance orientation. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, *75*, 132-140.

Wang, L. Y., & Lin, T. B. (2013). The representation of professionalism in native English-speaking teachers recruitment policies: A comparative study of Hong Kong, Japan, Korea and Taiwan. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, *12*(3), 5-22.

Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning, and identity*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Wenger, E. (2006). Communities of practice: A brief introduction. Retrieved, from http://www.ewenger.com/theory/index.htm

Wenger, E., McDermott, R. A., & Snyder, W. (2002). *Cultivating communities of practice: A guide to managing knowledge*. Boston: Harvard Business Press.

Wenger-Trayner, E. & Wenger-Trayner, B. (2015). Introduction to communities of practice: A brief overview of the concept and its uses. *Wenger-Traynor.com*. Retrieved from: http://wenger-trayner.com/introduction-to-communities-of-practice/

Whitsed, C. (2011). *Standing in the genkan: Adjunct foreign English language teachers in the Japanese higher education internationalisation context* (Doctoral dissertation). Murdoch University, Perth, Australia.

Whitsed, C., & Volet, S. (2013). Positioning foreign English language teachers in the Japanese university context. *Teachers and Teaching*, *19*(6), 717-735.

Whitsed, C., & Volet, S. (2011). Fostering the intercultural dimensions of internationalisation in higher education: Metaphors and challenges in the Japanese context. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *15*(2), 146-170.

Whitsed, C., & Wright, P. (2016). A bricolage exploration in genkan space: Tengu and adjunct TEFL in the Japanese university context. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, *29*(4), 594-615.

Whitsed, C., & Wright, P. (2013). English language learning in the Japanese higher education sector: Towards internationalisation. *Intercultural Education*, *24*(3), 222-236.

Whitsed, C., & Wright, P. (2011). Perspectives from within: Adjunct, foreign, English-language teachers in the internationalization of Japanese universities. *Journal of Research in International Education*, *10*(1), 28-45.

Willis, J. W. (2007). Foundations of qualitative research: Interpretive and critical approaches. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Wu, X., & Huang, F. (2018). International faculty in China: Case studies of four leading universities in Shanghai. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, *19*(2), 253-262.

Yamada, R., & Yamada, A. (2018). Higher education governance and institutional research: The emergence of a new role in the post-massification era in Japan. In *Massification of Higher Education in Asia* (pp. 129-147). Singapore: Springer.

Yang, R., & Welch, A. (2012). A world-class university in China? The case of Tsinghua. *Higher education*, *63*(5), 645-666.

Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case study research and applications: Design and methods*. London: Sage.

Yin, R. K. (2018). *Case study research and applications: Design and methods*. London: Sage.

Yonezawa, A. (2020). Challenges of the Japanese higher education Amidst population decline and globalization. *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, *18*(1), 43-52.

Yonezawa, A. (2018). Foreword. In E. Stigger., M. Wang., D. Laurence., & A. Bordilovskaya (Eds.), *Internationalization Within Higher Education: Perspectives from Japan*. Singapore: Springer.

Yonezawa, A. (2014). Japan's challenge of fostering "global human resources": Policy debates and practices. *Japan Labor Review*, *11*(2), 37-52.

Yonezawa, A. (2010). Much ado about ranking: why can't Japanese universities internationalize? *Japan Forum,* 22(1), 121-137.

Yonezawa, A. (2011). The internationalization of Japanese higher education: Policy debates and realities. In S. Marginson., S. Kaur. & E. Sawir (Eds.), *Higher education in the Asia-Pacific* (pp. 329-342). Dordrecht: Springer.

Yonezawa, A., Akiba, H., & Hirouchi, D. (2009). Japanese university leaders' perceptions of internationalization: The role of government in review and support. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *13*(2), 125-142.

Yonezawa, A., Ishida, K., & Horta, H. (2013). The long-term internationalization of higher education in Japan. In K. Mok, & K. Yu (Eds.), *Internationalization of higher education in East Asia: Trends of student mobility and impact on education governance* (179-191). Milton Park: Routledge.

Yonezawa, A., & Shimmi, Y. (2015). Transformation of university governance through internationalization: Challenges for top universities and government policies in Japan. *Higher Education*, *70*(2), 173-186.

Yonezawa, Y., & Yonezawa, A. (2016). Internationalization of higher education as a response to globalization: Japan's policy challenges since the 1980s. In *Creating social cohesion in an interdependent world* (191-204). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Yoshida, A. (2002). The curriculum reforms of the 1990s: What has changed? *Higher Education*, *43*(1), 43-63.

Zainal, Z. (2007). Case study as a research method. *Journal Kemanusiaan,* 9(1), 1-6.

# Appendices

## Appendix A: Ethical Approval Form, University of Liverpool U.K.

UNIVERSITY OF LIVERPOOL | ONLINE PROGRAMMES

Dear Thomas Nishikawa

I am pleased to inform you that the EdD. Virtual Programme Research Ethics Committee (VPREC) has approved your application for ethical approval for your study. Details and conditions of the approval can be found below.

| | |
|---|---|
| Sub-Committee: | EdD. Virtual Programme Research Ethics Committee (VPREC) |
| Review type: | Expedited |
| PI: | |
| School: | Lifelong Learning |
| Title: | The Rhetoric and Reality of Internationalizing Japanese Higher Education: A Case Study on the Integration of Foreign Faculty |
| First Reviewer: | Dr. Lucilla Crosta |
| Second Reviewer: | Dr. Martin Gough |
| Other members of the Committee | Dr. Anthony Edwards, Dr. Ewan Down, Dr. Janet Hanson, Dr. Kathleen Kelm |
| | |
| Date of Approval: | 15th December 2015 |

The application was APPROVED subject to the following conditions:

| Conditions | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | Mandatory | M: All serious adverse events must be reported to the VPREC within 24 hours of their occurrence, via the EdD Thesis Primary Supervisor. |

UNIVERSITY OF LIVERPOOL | ONLINE PROGRAMMES

This approval applies for the duration of the research. If it is proposed to extend the duration of the study as specified in the application form, the Sub-Committee should be notified. If it is proposed to make an amendment to the research, you should notify the Sub-Committee by following the Notice of Amendment procedure outlined at http://www.liv.ac.uk/media/livacuk/researchethics/notice%20of%20amendment.doc.

Where your research includes elements that are not conducted in the UK, approval to proceed is further conditional upon a thorough risk assessment of the site and local permission to carry out the research, including, where such a body exists, local research ethics committee approval. No documentation of local permission is required (a) if the researcher will simply be asking organizations to distribute research invitations on the researcher's behalf, or (b) if the researcher is using only public means to identify/contact participants. When medical, educational, or business records are analysed or used to identify potential research participants, the site needs to explicitly approve access to data for research purposes (even if the researcher normally has access to that data to perform his or her job).

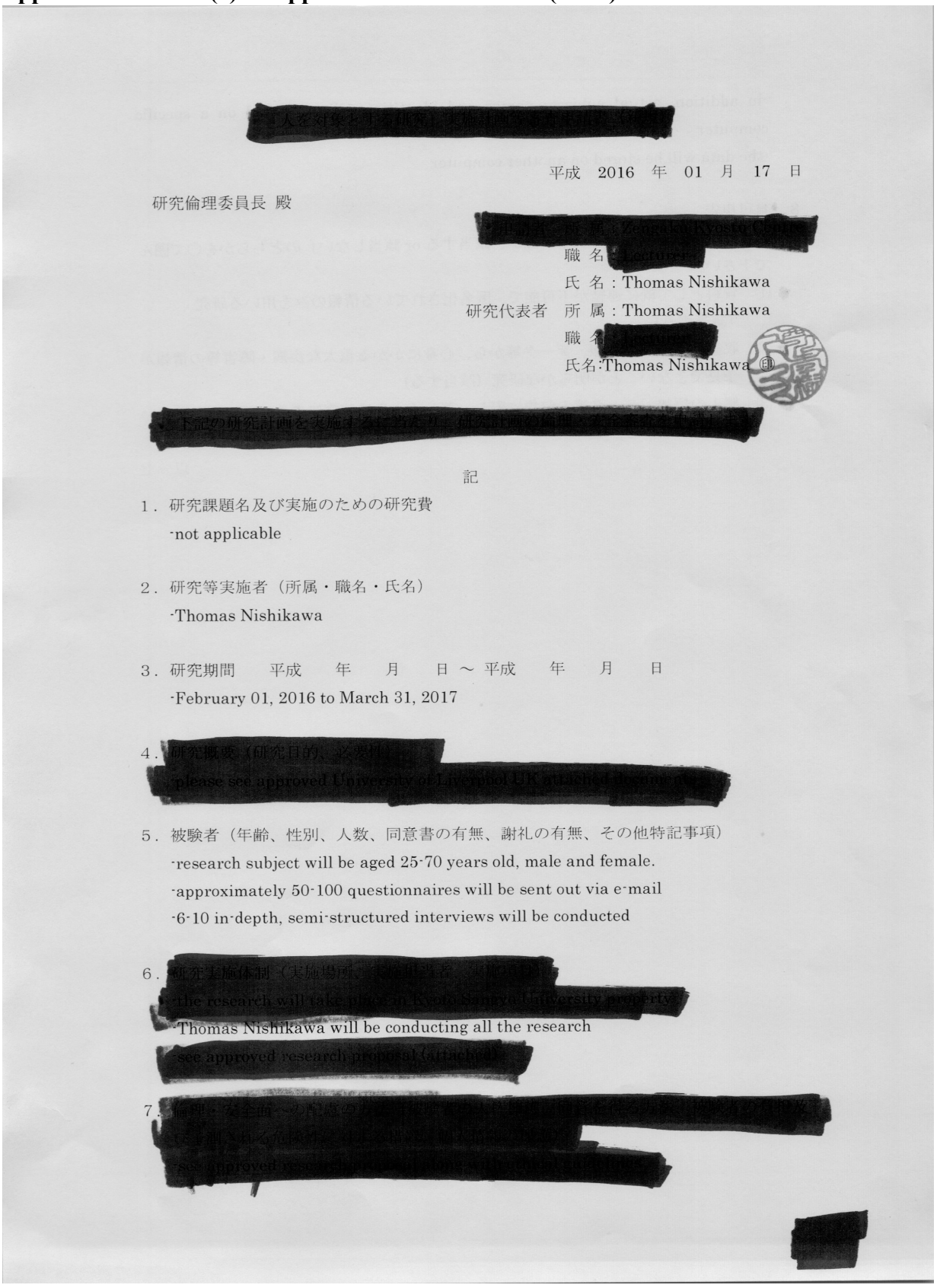
Please note that the approval to proceed depends also on research proposal approval.

Kind regards,

Lucilla Crosta

Chair, EdD. VPREC

**Appendix B: Letter (1) of Approval from Institution (ACU)**



[redacted]

平成 2016 年 01 月 17 日

研究倫理委員長 殿

[redacted]
職 名 [redacted]
氏 名 : Thomas Nishikawa
研究代表者 所 属 : Thomas Nishikawa
職 名 [redacted]
氏名 Thomas Nishikawa ㊞

[redacted]

記

1．研究課題名及び実施のための研究費
-not applicable

2．研究等実施者（所属・職名・氏名）
-Thomas Nishikawa

3．研究期間 平成 年 月 日 ～ 平成 年 月 日
-February 01, 2016 to March 31, 2017

4．[redacted]
-please see approved University of Liverpool UK attached [redacted]

5．被験者（年齢、性別、人数、同意書の有無、謝礼の有無、その他特記事項）
-research subject will be aged 25-70 years old, male and female.
-approximately 50-100 questionnaires will be sent out via e-mail
-6-10 in-depth, semi-structured interviews will be conducted

6．[redacted]
-the research will take place on Kyoto Sangyo University property
-Thomas Nishikawa will be conducting all the research
-see approved research proposal (attached) [redacted]

7．[redacted]

**Appendix C: Letter (2) of Approval from Institution (ACU)**

平成 29 年 7 月 20 日

University of Liverpool
Dr. Lucilla Crosta

[redacted]

アンケート調査実施の承諾について

下記教員より申請がありました博士論文執筆のためのアンケート調査実施につきまして、以下のとおり実施することを承諾します。

記

1. [redacted]

2. 氏　　名 ： 西川 年樹 トーマス

3. 論文タイトル：
The Internationalization of Japanese Higher Education: A Case Study on the Integration of Foreign Faculty that use the Medium of English for Instruction.

4. [redacted]

5. 変更日
2017 年 7 月 31 日

以 上

**Appendix D: Participation Information Sheet and Consent Form**

UNIVERSITY OF LIVERPOOL

# Participant Information Sheet-Consent Form 'Foreign Faculty working at Japanese Universities'

Research Project Title:

## The Rhetoric and Reality of Internationalizing Japanese Higher Education: A Case Study on the Integration of Foreign Faculty

(Short title: Integration of Foreign Faculty into the Japanese University System)
December 2015 Version 1.3

Invitation

You are being invited to participate in a research study which is done as partial fulfillment of a doctoral degree. Before you decide whether to participate, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and feel free to ask us if you would like more information or if there is anything that you do not understand. Please also feel free to discuss this with your colleagues, friends etc., if you wish. We would like to stress that you do not have to accept this invitation and should only agree to take part if you want to. Please also consider that my role as teacher is separated from the one of researcher I will undertake with this study. Thank you for reading this.

Purpose

The purpose of the research is to investigate English speaking foreign faculty in higher education at a private university in Japan and examine prior qualifications and experiences that influence and shape their professional development within different type of institutions. Furthermore, the research area is, who are the foreign faculty members teaching English medium studies in higher education; a perspective of today's globalized university system and faculty composition at a private university in Japan?

Rationale for your participation

You have been invited to take part in this study because you are non-Japanese, a part-time, full time, contract, tenured, none tenured faculty member or teaching staff at a private or national university in Japan. All participants should have native or native like English ability.

Do I have to take part?

NO. Taking part in this research project is 100% totally voluntary. You are free to withdraw anytime without explanation or penalty. If you choose to withdraw you can request in writing that the data related to you will not be used or reported in the research study.

What will happen if I take part?

If you choose to take part you are agreeing to participate in one or two individual semi-structured interview(s) (the second interview is optional at the discretion of the principle researcher with your agreement), lasting for no more than one hour, at a location of your choice and at a mutually convenient time. Prior to the interview you will also be asked to complete and return an 'online questionnaire that will require approximately 15-20 minutes to complete ' this will be emailed to you in advance of the interview. The interviewee may answer the questionnaire at their convenience and bring the questionnaire to the interview. If you decide to take part a researcher will contact you to discuss the process for you to give your informed written consent.

With your permission, the interview will be audio recorded only so that I can remember what was discussed and also to use a transcription of the record interview to aid analysis of the information you provide and for future dissemination. The recording of the interview will be kept in a secured file for five years on a computer that is password protected.

Expenses and / or payments

No reimbursement or payments of any kind will be offered for participation in this research.

Are there any risks in taking part?

It is not anticipated that you will experience any risks, harm or expenses from participation in this research study. There is a small but unlikely scenario that past memories may be uncomfortable to talk about. However should you experience any distress during the interview the researcher will provide appropriate support, including the option to pause or stop the interview. If you experience any discomfort as a result of your participation, post interview, please inform the principle researcher immediately (contact information below). There is the possibility of onsite counselling from the university.

Are there any benefits in taking part?

There is no direct benefit to you from participating in this research study except for generating knowledge that can be used to further understand about foreign faculty development within higher education in Japan. However a possible potential benefit is that participating in the interview will provide you with an opportunity to reflect on your experiences, individual

learning, skills and development as a faculty member/teaching staff within a Japanese university teaching environment.

What if I am unhappy or if there is a problem?

If you are unhappy, or if there is a problem, please feel free to let us know by contacting my supervisor Dr. Michael Thomas at this email address. michael.thomas@online.liverpool.ac.uk f you remain unhappy, you can contact me, Thomas Nishikawa, at thomas.nishikawa@online.liverpool.ac.uk and I will try to help. If you remain still unhappy or have a complaint which you feel you cannot come to us with then you should contact the Research Participant Advocate at USA number 001-612-312-1210 or email address liverpoolethics@ohecampus.com When contacting the Research Participant Advocate, please provide details of the name or description of the study (so that it can be identified), the researcher(s) involved, and the details of the complaint you wish to make.

Will my participation be kept confidential?

I will not disclose to any third party that you participated in this research study. Any data you generate will be kept anonymous. Anonymous data generated from participants in this study will be stored for up to five years and/or until the successful completion of this thesis has been achieved. All participants' identity including e-mail addresses will remain anonymous; a pseudonym will be assigned at the commencement of the questionnaire. This will ensure that you and your institution will not be identifiable in any publication made on the study and that participants' personal information will not be shared with third parties. In addition, e-mail addresses will be destroyed when the interview process will be concluded. This will be done to preserve anonymity within the written thesis and any future publications. The data will be store on HDD and password PC that are password protected and only accessible by the principle researcher.

What will happen to the results of the study?

Anonymous results will be compiled and reported within the University of Liverpool UK to fulfil course requirements. Participant data will be unidentifiable and demographic information will also be stripped from any shared data and publications.

What will happen if I want to stop taking part?

Participants may withdraw at any time, without explanation. Results up to the period of withdrawal may be used, if you are happy for this to be done.

Who can I contact if I have further questions?

Thomas Nishikawa (Principle Investigator) at thomas.nishikawa@online.liverpool.ac.uk

Please keep/print a copy of the Participant Information Sheet for your reference. Please contact me and/or the Research Participant Advocate at the University of Liverpool with any question or concerns you may have.

Thomas T. Nishikawa

Principle Researcher Signature: Date:

Name of Participant Signature: Date
(please print)

## Appendix E: Online Questionnaire



# Questionnaire: The Internationalization of Japanese Universities: A Case Study on the Integration of Foreign Faculty.

I am a doctoral candidate at the University of Liverpool, UK. My research is titled "The Internationalization of Japanese Higher Education: A Case Study on the Integration of Foreign Faculty." The purpose of the research is to establish a clear understanding of how foreign faculty are affected by government policies and their integration into Japan's university system. The questionnaire will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. The data collected will only be used for this research project. The research intends to help practitioners, policy makers and ultimately the students.

Your participation in this questionnaire is completely voluntary, and you can withdraw at any time. You may decline or leave blank any questions you do not wish to answer. There are no known risks associated with this research study. Your answers to this questionnaire will remain confidential. Data will be used for research purposes only, and it will be stored securely on password protected devices.

If you have any questions or complaints about this study, please feel free to contact Thomas Nishikawa, Doctoral Candidate at thomas.nishikawa@online.liverpool.ac.uk

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely yours,
Thomas T. Nishikawa

## Instructions:

For all questions, please complete your answer based on your primary university or the university where you have the most number of classes. Please choose the best answer for each question. For OPEN-ENDED questions, please answer in as much detail as possible. In the case of statements, please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the statement.

## Section One: Eligibility to Participate/Background Information

1. **1. Do you teach at a university in Japan and use the medium of English for instruction?**
   *Mark only one oval.*

   ◯ Yes
   ◯ No. If no, thank you for your time and participation. Please exit the survey. *After the last question in this section, stop filling out this form.*

2. **2. Are you a Japanese national?**
   *Mark only one oval.*

   ◯ Yes. If yes, thank you for your time and participation. Please exit the survey. *After the last question in this section, stop filling out this form.*
   ◯ No.

3. **3. How long have you been teaching at university in Japan?**

*Mark only one oval.*

- ◯ 1 to 3 years (If less than one year, please exit questionnaire)
- ◯ 4 to 5 years
- ◯ 6 to 10 years
- ◯ 11 to 20 years
- ◯ More than twenty one years

4. **4. What is the highest degree you currently hold?**

*Mark only one oval.*

- ◯ Bachelor's degree
- ◯ Master's Degree
- ◯ Professional Doctorate (e.g. Ed.D.)
- ◯ Doctor of Philosophy (e.g. Ph.D.)
- ◯ Other: _____

## Section Two: Integrating into the Japanese University Work Environment

Instructions: For questions 5 to 24, please complete your answer based on your primary university or the university where you have the most number of classes. Please choose the best answer for each question. For OPEN-ENDED questions, please answer in as much detail as possible. In the case of statements, please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the statement. For questions 5 to 24 refer to this definition of integration: equal access to employment across all sectors in higher education, the ability to create social connections within and among groups within an institution and community without consequences or judgements, and barrier free connections related to language, culture, and the local environment (Ager & Strang, 2008).

5. **5. The term that best describes non-Japanese faculty at my university is_____.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- ◯ expatriate academic
- ◯ foreign faculty
- ◯ academic migrant
- ◯ international academic
- ◯ immigrant faculty
- ◯ foreign-born faculty
- ◯ native professor
- ◯ part-time faculty
- ◯ instructor
- ◯ Other: _____

6. **6. My university promotes the hiring of foreign faculty.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

7. **7. My university helps non-tenured foreign faculty integrate effectively into their working environment.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

8. **8. Non-tenured foreign faculty feel integrated into my university.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

9. **9. My university supports non-tenured foreign faculty with their continuing professional development.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

10. **10. Non-tenured foreign faculty are effectively mentored during their work at my university. Mentoring is defined as: members new to the community who enter at the periphery. As the members learn the social rules and rituals of the community/culture, they move towards full participation and view themselves as full members of the community (Lave & Wenger, 1991).**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

11. **11. My university helps non-tenured foreign faculty integrate into Japanese society.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

12. **12. My university helps non-tenured foreign faculty integrate into both the institution and department.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

13. **13. Non-tenured foreign faculty feel that they are valued members at my university.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

14. **14. Non-tenured foreign faculty feel that their voices are heard in department decision-making.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

15. **15. My university provides intercultural training to non-tenured foreign faculty to help them integrate into the Japanese university system.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

16. **16. My university leadership (faculty chair) routinely seeks non-tenured foreign faculty input on matters that concern their ability to perform effectively as members of the university.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

17. **17. My university treats non-tenured foreign faculty as an essential part of the university.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

18. **18. Non-tenured foreign faculty have informal discussions amongst themselves on campus (e.g. staffrooms, offices, copy rooms etc.) about pedagogy.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- ◯ Strongly disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Slightly disagree
- ◯ Slightly agree
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly agree

19. **19. Non-tenured foreign faculty have informal discussions amongst themselves on campus (e.g. staffrooms, offices, copy rooms etc.) about personal matters.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- ◯ Strongly disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Slightly disagree
- ◯ Slightly agree
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly agree

20. **20. Non-tenured foreign faculty have formal discussions with university leadership (e.g. committee heads, faculty chairs, etc.) about institutional matters.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- ◯ Strongly disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Slightly disagree
- ◯ Slightly agree
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly agree

21. **21. Non-tenured foreign faculty participate in informal discussions with tenured faculty about pedagogy.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- ◯ Strongly disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Slightly disagree
- ◯ Slightly agree
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly agree

22. **22. Non-tenured foreign faculty and non-tenured Japanese faculty are considered equal at my university in all aspects.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

23. **23. If they are considered unequal, in which ways?**

24. **24. Campus life at my university for non-tenured foreign faculty can best be described as.**

*Mark only one oval.*

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Marginalized | | | | | | Integrated |

## Section Three: Internationalization of Japanese Universities

Instructions: For the following questions, please complete your answer based on your primary university or the university where you have the most number of classes. Please choose the best answer for each question. For OPEN-ENDED questions, please answer in as much detail as possible. In the case of statements, please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the statement. For questions 25 to 33 refer to this definition of internationalization: Internationalization includes the policies and practices stated by an academic institution along with its systems and practices to survive in the global academic environment (Altbach & Knight, 2007).

25. **25. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science and Technology's (MEXT) policies contribute to the internationalization of universities in Japan.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree
- Not familiar with policies

26. **26. MEXT's 'Global 30 Project' contributes to the internationalization of universities in Japan.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree
- Not familiar with the 'Global 30 Project'

27. **27. MEXT's 'Top Global University Project' contributes to the internationalization of universities in Japan.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree
- Not familiar with the 'Top Global University Project'

28. **28. Internationalization includes the policies and practices stated by an academic institution along with its systems and practices to survive in the global academic environment (Altbach & Knight, 2007). Do you agree that your university has made attempts to internationalize in line with this definition?**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

29. **29. Non-tenured foreign faculty contribute to the internationalization of my university.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

30. **30. Non-tenured foreign faculty are needed to internationalize my university.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- ◯ Strongly disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Slightly disagree
- ◯ Slightly agree
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly agree

31. **31. Non-tenured foreign faculty are able to contribute to their university's internationalization policy more than non-tenured Japanese faculty.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- ◯ Strongly disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Slightly disagree
- ◯ Slightly agree
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly agree

32. **32. The cultural background of non-tenured foreign faculty influences the mindset of my university. Mindset refers to a set of attitudes or fixed ideas that somebody has and that are often difficult to change (Oxford English Dictionary, 2015).**

*Mark only one oval.*

- ◯ Strongly disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Slightly disagree
- ◯ Slightly agree
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly agree

33. **33. How would you describe the contributions that foreign faculty make to the internationalization of your university?**

## Section Four: The Role of Non-tenured Foreign Faculty in University Policy-making

Instructions: For the following questions, please complete your answer based on your primary university or the university where you have the most number of classes. Please choose the best answer for each question. For OPEN-ENDED questions, please answer in as much detail as possible. In the case of statements, please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the statement.

34. **34. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science and Technology's (MEXT) policies contribute positively to the hiring of non-tenured foreign faculty at my university.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

35. **35. University policies need to reflect what is occurring globally in higher education even if they do not align with MEXT's policies on education.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

36. **36. Non-tenured foreign faculty and non-tenured Japanese faculty have an equal influence on curriculum development policies.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

37. **37. Non-tenured foreign faculty are as productive as their non-tenured Japanese faculty in terms of research activity.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Slightly disagree
- Slightly agree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

38. **38. My university treats non-tenured foreign faculty in the same manner as their Japanese counterparts regarding tenure.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- Yes
- No

39. **39. Are there any significant discrepancies between what you expected from your university based on your job description and what you experienced in your first year of teaching?**

*Mark only one oval.*

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

40. **Please explain any discrepancies.**

41. **40. What is the purpose of having non-tenured foreign faculty at your university?**

## Section Five: Demographic and Employment Information

Instructions: For the following questions, please complete your answers based on your primary university or the university where you have the most number of classes. Please choose the best answer for each question. For OPEN-ENDED questions, please answer in as much detail as possible. In the case of statements, please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the statement.

42. **41. How many universities are you employed at?**

*Mark only one oval.*

- ◯ One university
- ◯ Two universities
- ◯ Three universities
- ◯ Four to six universities
- ◯ Seven or more universities

43. **42. I teach at a ___. Choose all that apply.**

*Check all that apply.*

- ☐ National university
- ☐ Public university
- ☐ Private university
- ☐ Prefer not to say
- ☐ Other:

44. **43. What is your employment status at your university/universities? Please check all that apply.**

*Check all that apply.*

- [ ] Full-time tenured
- [ ] Full-time contract (tenure track)
- [ ] Full-time contract (limited term)
- [ ] Part-time at one institution
- [ ] Part-time at one or more institutions
- [ ] Prefer not to say
- [ ] Other: _____

45. **44. What position(s) do you currently hold? Please check all that apply.**

*Check all that apply.*

- [ ] Department Head
- [ ] Professor
- [ ] Associate Professor
- [ ] Assistant Professor
- [ ] Lecturer
- [ ] Instructor
- [ ] Practical English Instructor
- [ ] Prefer not to say
- [ ] Other: _____

46. **45. Gender**

*Mark only one oval.*

- ◯ Female
- ◯ Male
- ◯ Prefer not to say

47. **46. Age Group**

*Mark only one oval.*

- ◯ Under 25
- ◯ 26-30
- ◯ 31-35
- ◯ 36-40
- ◯ 41-50
- ◯ 51-60
- ◯ 61-70
- ◯ Over 71
- ◯ Prefer not to say

48. **47. What is your nationality?**

_____

49. **48. What is your level of spoken Japanese?**

*Mark only one oval.*

- ◯ Understand Japanese used in a variety of circumstances (N1)
- ◯ Understand Japanese used in everyday situations, and in a variety of circumstances to a certain degree (N2)
- ◯ Understand Japanese used in everyday situations to a certain degree (N3)
- ◯ Understand basic Japanese (N4)
- ◯ Understand some basic Japanese (N5)
- ◯ None

50. **49. What is your Japanese reading level?**

*Mark only one oval.*

- ◯ Understand Japanese used in a variety of circumstances (N1)
- ◯ Understand Japanese used in everyday situations, and in a variety of circumstances to a certain degree (N2)
- ◯ Understand Japanese used in everyday situations to a certain degree (N3)
- ◯ Understand basic Japanese (N4)
- ◯ Understand some basic Japanese (N5)
- ◯ None

## Last question

51. **If you would be willing to participate in a face to face, Skype interview, or a short written online interview, please leave your e-mail address below. I will contact you or forward you the interview questions for your consideration. Participation is voluntary. Please indicate which one.**

*Mark only one oval.*

- ◯ face to face interview
- ◯ Skype interview
- ◯ asynchronous online interview (additional short-answer survey)

52. **e-mail address**

## Thank you for your time and participation in this research.

**Appendix F: Interview Questions**

| Interview Questions Version 2: 2017 | Answers Research Question number(s) | Comments |
|---|---|---|
| **Section One: Eligibility to Participate/Background Information** | | |
| 1. Do you teach at a university in Japan. use the medium of English for instruction and are non-Japanese? | -All | |
| 2. What were you doing before coming to Japan? What were you doing before teaching at a university in Japan? | -All | |
| 3. How long have you been teaching at universities in Japan? Please give an example of a high point and an example of a low point. | -RQ 1. 3 | |
| 4. What is the highest degree you currently hold? How has it benefited your career? | -RQ 1. 3 | |
| 5. What duties, responsibilities do you perform at your university? Formal and informal | -RQ 1. 2 | |

| **Section Two: Integrating into the Japanese University Work Environment** | **Answers Research Question number(s)** | |
|---|---|---|
| 6. Do Japanese universities promote the hiring of foreign faculty<br><br>**-follow-up questions:**<br><br>How? For example?<br>Why do they not promote the hiring?<br>What is the benefit of hiring foreign faulty?<br>Are there any advantages to hiring non-tenured faculty? Any disadvantages? | -RQ 3 | |
| 7. What term (s) best describes non-Japanese faculty at Japanese universities?<br><br>**-follow-up questions:**<br><br>What is the best term to describe foreign faculty?<br>What is the best term to describe non-tenured foreign faculty?<br>What are non-tenured foreign part-time faculty? (staff, instructors, warm bodies, actors)<br><br>Why do you say ___ is the best term to describe foreign faculty?<br><br>What term least describes non-Japanese faculty at Japanese universities? | -RQ 1 | |
| | | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 8. Are tenured/non-tenured foreign faculty comfortable with campus life and climate which include the culture, habits, decisions, practices and policies of the Japanese university environment?<br><br>**-follow-up questions**<br><br>Why or why not (Give an example)?<br><br>What role does the culture of the university play in creating a workable environment for the foreign faculty? | -RQ 1 | |
| 9. Are non-tenured foreign faculty and non-tenured domestic faculty considered equal at Japanese universities in all aspects?<br><br>**-follow-up questions**<br><br>If not why?<br><br>Give an example of the inequality?<br><br>How can equality be improved? If so how? | -RQ 1, 3 | |
| 10. How are tenured/non-tenured foreign faculty at Japanese universities identified?<br>Are they identified by salient attributes, gender, race, ethnicity, nationality, sexual orientation, religion, culture, and socioeconomic status?<br>**-follow-up questions**<br>How else are they identified?<br>Does this contribute to the internationalization of Japanese universities? | -RQ 1, 3 | |

| | |
|---|---|
| 11. Does the university leadership seek the input from non-tenured foreign faculty on matters that concern their ability to perform effectively as a member of the community? | -RQ 2, 3 |
| **-follow-up questions** | |
| How is their input sought? Can you give an example? | |
| What kind of input should Japanese universities seek from the foreign faculty? Both tenured and non-tenured? | |
| | |
| 12. Are non-tenured foreign faculty treated as an essential part of the university community? | -RQ 1, 3 |
| **-follow-up questions** | |
| How are they treated as an essential part? | |
| Why are they not treated as an essential part? | |
| | |
| 13. Do non-tenured foreign faculty have informal discussions amongst each other in staff rooms, offices, and copy rooms etcetera regarding, institutional, department, pedagogical and personal matter? | -RQ 1, 2 |
| **-follow-up questions** | |
| How, when, and where do these discussions take place? | |
| What was your last discussion about? | |
| | |
| 14. Do non-tenured foreign faculty have formal discussions with Chairs, committee heads, and or institutional leaders | -RQ 1, 3 |



4

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| regarding, institutional, departmental, pedagogical, and university matters? | | | |
| **-follow-up questions** | | | |
| Should these discussions be mandatory? | | | |
| When was the last time you spoke to your chair or department head? | | | |
| About what? | | | |
| 15. Do non-tenured foreign faculty participate in informal discussions with tenured faculty regarding, pedagogical and institutional matters? | | -RQ 1 | |
| **-follow-up questions** | | | |
| Can you give me a personal example? | | | |
| 16. How would you describe campus life at a Japanese university for tenured/non-tenured foreign faculty? | | RQ 1 | |
| **-follow-up questions** | | | |
| How would you describe your experience? | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |



5

| **Section Three: Internationalization of Japanese Universities** | | |
|---|---|---|
| 17. How do tenured/non-tenured foreign faculty contribute to the internationalization of Japanese universities? | -RQ 1, 2 | |
| **-follow-up questions** | | |
| Can you give an example? | | |
| What is their impact? | | |
| 18. Are non-tenured foreign faculty needed to internationalize Japanese universities? | -RQ 2 | |
| **-follow-up questions** | | |
| Why or why not? | | |
| 19. Are non-tenured foreign faculty more influential in internationalizing Japanese universities than non-tenured domestic faculty? | -RQ 2 | |
| **-follow-up questions** | | |
| How? | | |
| Can you give me an example? | | |
| | -RQ 1 | |



6

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 20. Do tenured/non-tenured foreign faculty bring their culture into the university community and influences the university mindset?<br>**-follow-up questions**<br>If yes, how?<br>Examples.<br>Is this a positive situation? | | |
| 21. Internationalization includes the policies and practices stated by an academic institution along with its systems and practices to survive in the global academic environment (Altbach & Knight, 2007).<br>Has your university has made attempts to internationalize?<br>**-follow-up questions**<br>If so how?<br>Do you agree that your university uses a different definition of internationalization? What is it?<br>If yes, give examples of attempts to internationalize. | -RQ 1, 3 | |
| 22. How would you describe the internationalization of Japanese universities?<br>**-follow-up questions**<br>At your institution? | -RQ 1 | |

7

7

| **Section Four: The role of non-tenured foreign faculty in university policy-making** | | |
|---|---|---|
| 23. Should university policies reflect what is occurring globally in higher education regardless of governmental policies on education?<br><br>**-follow-up questions**<br><br>If no what should university policies reflect? | | -RQ 2, 3 |
| 24. Do the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science, and Technology (MEXT) policies contribute to the internationalization of universities in Japan?<br><br>**-follow-up questions**<br><br>Why or why not? | | -RQ 3 |
| 25. Do The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science, and Technology (MEXT) policies contribute to the hiring/integration of foreign faculty into Japanese universities?<br><br>**-follow-up questions**<br><br>How? For example? | | -RQ 3 |
| 26. Are you aware of the 'Global 30 Project' and/or the The Top Global University Project' created by MEXT? | | -RQ 2, 3 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **-follow-up questions**<br>How have they affected you and/or your institution? | | |
| 27. Do non-tenured foreign faculty have equal influence on university policy, governance, curriculum development and research as non-tenured domestic faculty?<br>**-follow-up questions**<br>Why or why not?<br>How can this situation be improved?<br>For example? | -RQ 1, 3 | |
| 28. Do you feel that the foreign faculty are treated in the same manner as their Japanese counterpart at your university?<br>**-follow-up questions**<br>How? Can you give an example?<br>If not why not? | -RQ 1, 3 | |
| 29. Are non-tenured foreign faculty as productive as their Japanese counterparts in terms of publications, ongoing research, and conference presentations**?**<br>**-follow-up questions**<br>For example? | -RQ 1 | |
| 30. Are there any significant discrepancies between what you expected from your university based on the job description and what you experience now? | -RQ 2, 3 | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **-follow-up questions** | | |
| -Please explain any discrepancies. | | |
| 31. How would you describe the role of foreign faculty tenured/non-tenured at universities in Japan? | -RQ 1, 2 | |
| **Section Five: Demographic and Employment Information** | | |
| 32. How many universities are you employed at? | -All | |
| Why do you choose to work at (_#of __) universities? | | |
| **-follow-up questions** | | |
| Is there a benefit to working at more than one university? | | |
| 33. My university is a ___. | -All | |
| -National university<br>-Public university<br>-Private university<br>-other<br>-Prefer not to say | | |
| 34. What position(s) do you currently hold? | -All | |
| **-follow-up questions** | | |

10

10

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Explain the positon? What do you do?<br>Prefer not to say | | |
| 35. Gender<br><br>Answer:<br>-Female<br>-Male<br>-Prefer not to say | -All | |
| 36. Age Group<br><br>Answer:<br>-Under 25<br>-26-30<br>-31-35<br>-36-40<br>-41-50<br>-51-60<br>-61-70<br>-Over 71<br>-Prefer not to say | -All | |
| 37. What is your nationality? | -All | |
| 38. What is your level of spoken Japanese? | -All | |
| 39. What is your Japanese reading level? | -All | |
| 40. Do you have any other thoughts about foreign faculty working at universities in Japan? | | |
| **Thank you for your time and participation in this research.** | | |

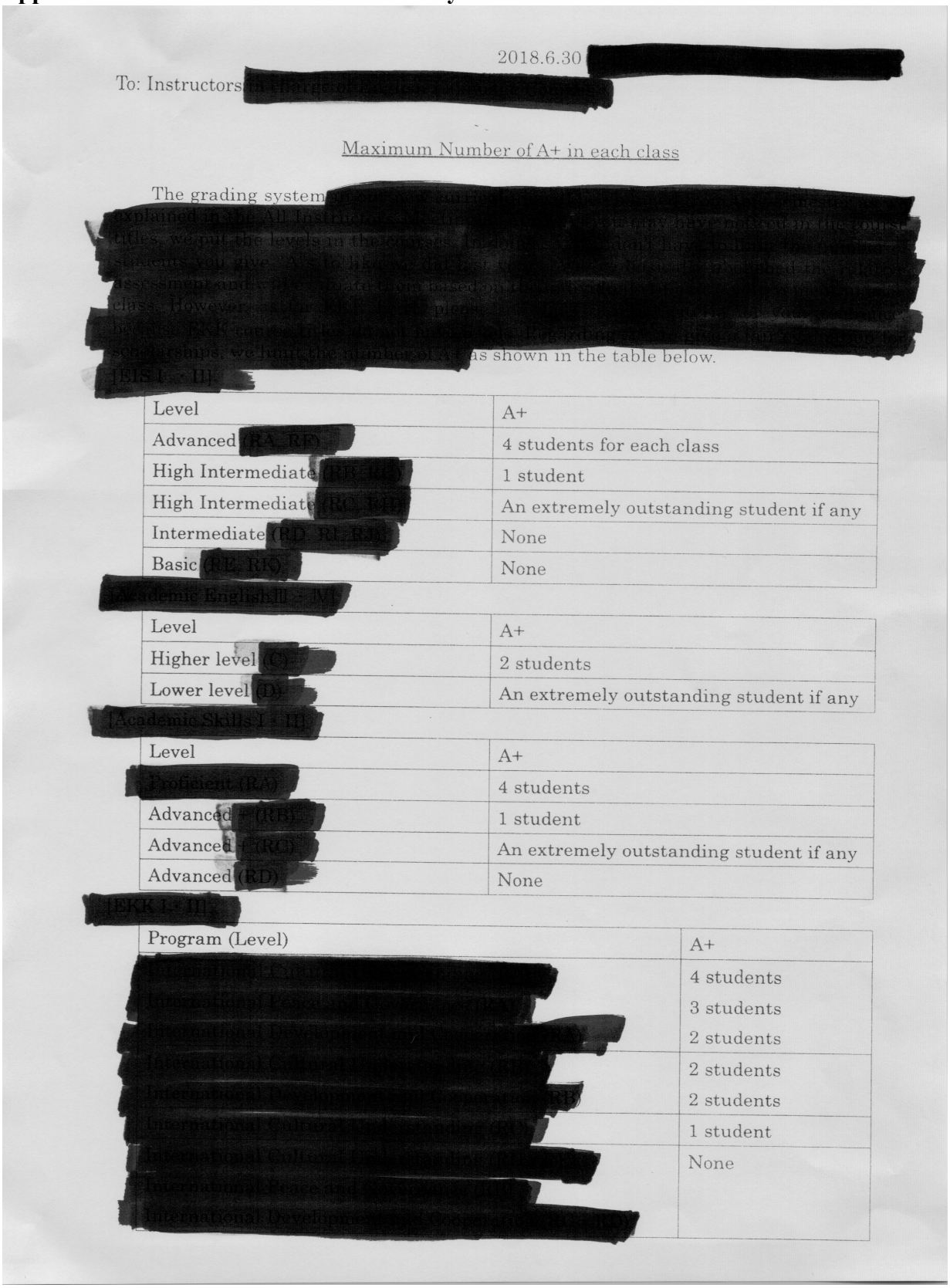


11

**Appendix G: Sample of Data Analysis**

| 2018-03-04 Online Questionnaire Analysis | Possible Label | Possible Codes | Categories /Sub-themes | Themes | Notes |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Question 22. Non-tenured foreign faculty and non-tenured Japanese faculty are considered equal at my university in all aspects.**<br>**Question 23. If they are considered unequal, in which ways?**<br>Yellow=possible quote to be used in thesis<br>**55 Responses:** | | | | **- Community**<br>-multiple-groups within foreign faculty, tenured and non-tenured (groups within groups)<br>-vertically grouped/classed within each community: tenured, non-tenured, ranking within the department, permanent or temporary<br>**- Motivation**<br>-monetary<br>-prestige<br>-student based or institutionally based (from institutional point of view or foreign | -monetary motives<br>-financial, life style<br>-self-worth<br>-long term tenured foreign faculty have forgotten being non-tenured<br>-non-tenured equals part-time?<br>4. "They actually aren't part of the faculty." -non-tenured<br>6. "we have literally been told that we are not equal members of the |
| 1. In every way, so much so it is like we are different species or on a different planet. We are basically short term tools like a chair. (3) | 1. cultural difference -jaded/lifer (been in JPN along time) | -foreign cultural factors<br>-short term assignment | -lack of cultural awareness?<br>-ethnocentric views?<br>-façade or veneer to the institution?<br>-monetary reasons, survival, quality of life? (motivation)<br>-ghettoize (segregation)<br>-conformity (assimilation)<br>-partition communities (movable not permanent) | | |
| 2. Japanese faculty may have to share a mail-box, whereas foreign faculty will be assigned a box each. | 2. separation | -foreigner privilege | | | |
| 3. Japanese (or language proficient foreign faculty) are privilege to more information and considered easier to work with and are included in more administrative work from my experience. | 3. language ability | -language ability | | | |
| 4. I've answered the questions above the best that I can, but I'm tenured, so I can only guess for most of them. Non-tenured faculty teach more classes (10 vs 7.5). They have limited term contracts. They earn roughly half the salary and they cannot attend faculty meetings. They actually aren't part of the faculty. | 4. arrogant, has forgot being non-tenured<br>5. out of touched/miss informed<br>6. cynical/lifer<br>7. lazy | -community divide, tenured /non-tenured<br>-separation, self-enclosed communities<br>-two different groups or communities | | | |
| 5. Contractual limitations but this is recent. Before this was not a problem. | 8. unequal<br>9. separation | | | | |
| 6. In EVERY way: Pay, status, responsibility, etc. In meetings with the "center-cho" we have literally been told that we are not equal members of the faculty. | | -monetarily different | | | |
| 7. short-term contracts, no input into planning | 10. segregation/ inequality | -remuneration | | | |
| 8. Salary and grants are not the same. | | | | | |

**Appendix H: Institutional Memo to Faculty**



2018.6.30 [redacted]

To: Instructors [redacted]

Maximum Number of A+ in each class

The grading system [redacted]

[redacted] as shown in the table below.

[EIS I – III]

| Level | A+ |
|---|---|
| Advanced (RA, RE) | 4 students for each class |
| High Intermediate (RB, RE) | 1 student |
| High Intermediate (RC, RE) | An extremely outstanding student if any |
| Intermediate (RD, RE, RB) | None |
| Basic (RE, RE) | None |

[Academic English II – IV]

| Level | A+ |
|---|---|
| Higher level (C) | 2 students |
| Lower level (D) | An extremely outstanding student if any |

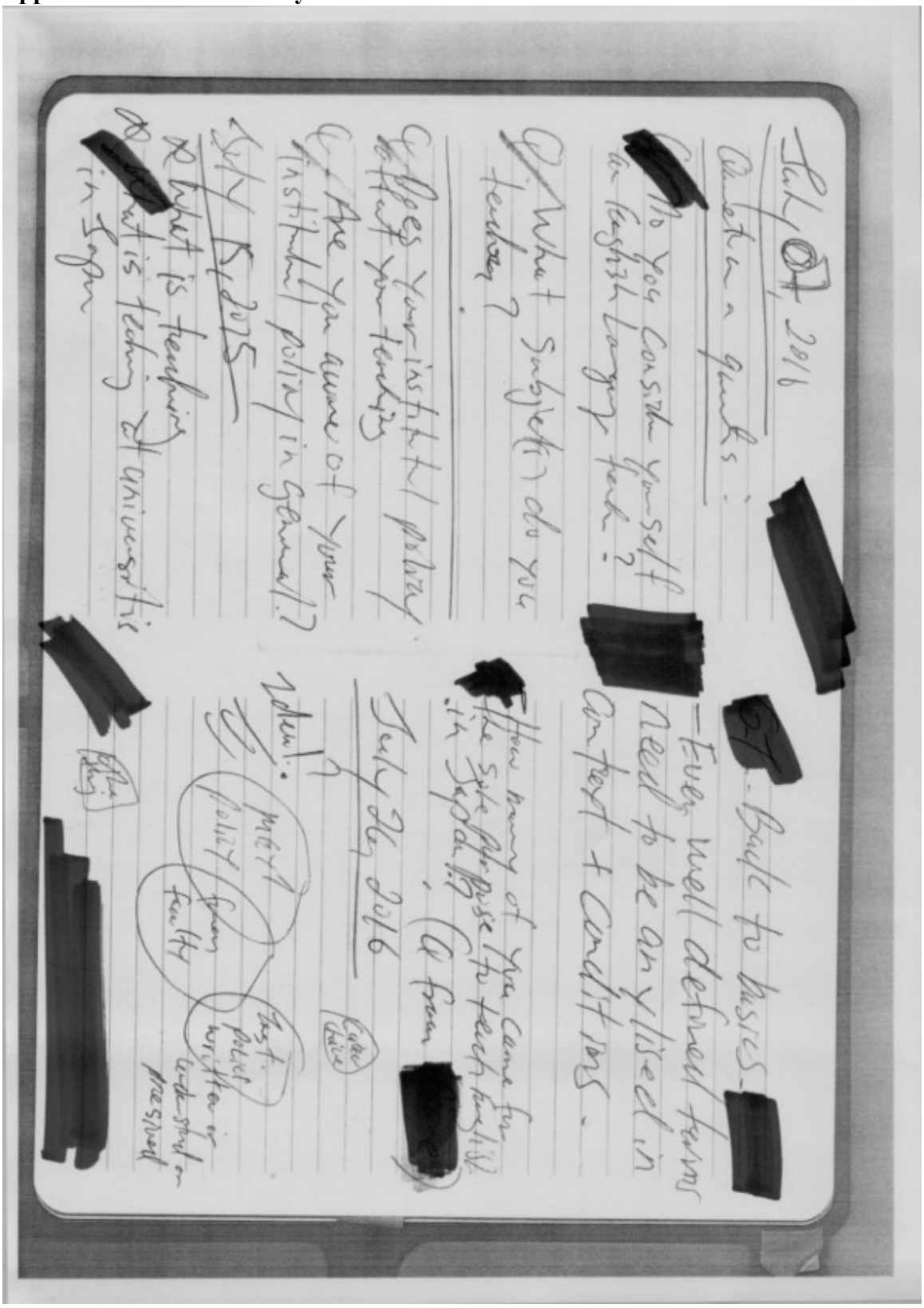
[Academic Skills I – III]

| Level | A+ |
|---|---|
| Proficient (RA) | 4 students |
| Advanced + (RB) | 1 student |
| Advanced (RC) | An extremely outstanding student if any |
| Advanced (RD) | None |

[EKK I– III]

| Program (Level) | A+ |
|---|---|
| [redacted] | 4 students |
| | 3 students |
| | 2 students |
| | 2 students |
| | 2 students |
| | 1 student |
| | None |

**Appendix I: Research Diary Notes**



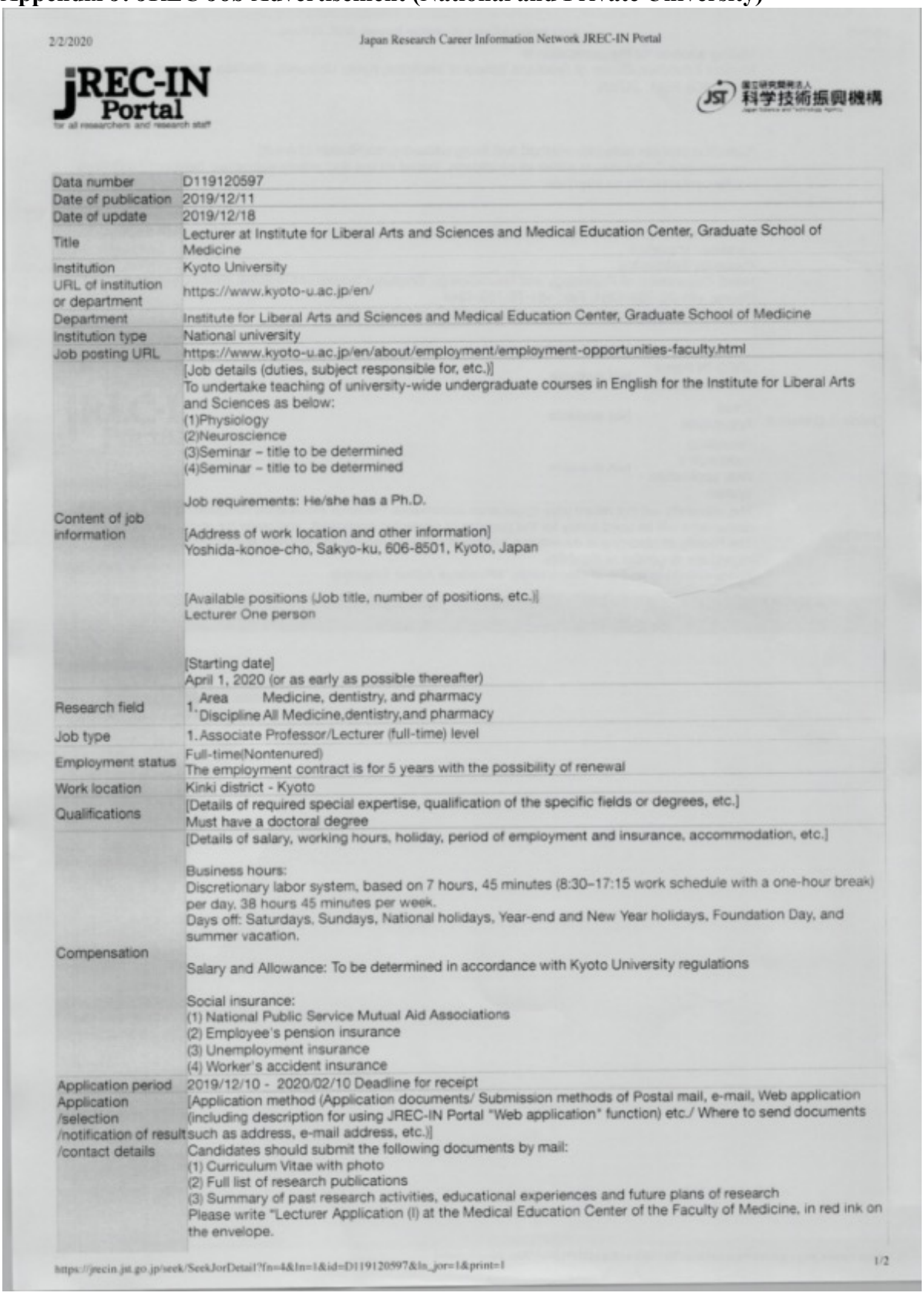
May 30, 2017 [redacted] (Wed) 1:30 - 3:30 13th

- Several T-C foreign faculty are talking about their own children's education in Kyoto
- How international ed. is better than local Jpn schools (specially international (IB) education)
- Jpn faculty were eating alone - Sem. interviews took in small groups 2-3? but were basically eating and saying few words
- Tenure/tenure track/ change in staff room dynamics for Jpn faculty to discuss

May 18, 2017 [redacted] - staff room (Fri)

- Foreign faculty all gathered discussing education, events in classroom, culture differences in the class room, student behavior.
- Student attitudes were quite different because talked different / passive sitting or trying to change/spread over desk not sitting up straight.
- Computerization to their home school, environment and their expectations.

**Appendix J: JREC Job Advertisement (National and Private University)**



2/2/2020 Japan Research Career Information Network JREC-IN Portal

jREC-IN Portal
for all researchers and research staff

JST 国立研究開発法人 科学技術振興機構

| | |
|---|---|
| Data number | D119120597 |
| Date of publication | 2019/12/11 |
| Date of update | 2019/12/18 |
| Title | Lecturer at Institute for Liberal Arts and Sciences and Medical Education Center, Graduate School of Medicine |
| Institution | Kyoto University |
| URL of institution or department | https://www.kyoto-u.ac.jp/en/ |
| Department | Institute for Liberal Arts and Sciences and Medical Education Center, Graduate School of Medicine |
| Institution type | National university |
| Job posting URL | https://www.kyoto-u.ac.jp/en/about/employment/employment-opportunities-faculty.html |
| Content of job information | [Job details (duties, subject responsible for, etc.)]<br>To undertake teaching of university-wide undergraduate courses in English for the Institute for Liberal Arts and Sciences as below:<br>(1)Physiology<br>(2)Neuroscience<br>(3)Seminar – title to be determined<br>(4)Seminar – title to be determined<br><br>Job requirements: He/she has a Ph.D.<br><br>[Address of work location and other information]<br>Yoshida-konoe-cho, Sakyo-ku, 606-8501, Kyoto, Japan<br><br>[Available positions (Job title, number of positions, etc.)]<br>Lecturer One person<br><br>[Starting date]<br>April 1, 2020 (or as early as possible thereafter) |
| Research field | 1. Area Medicine, dentistry, and pharmacy<br>Discipline All Medicine,dentistry,and pharmacy |
| Job type | 1.Associate Professor/Lecturer (full-time) level |
| Employment status | Full-time(Nontenured)<br>The employment contract is for 5 years with the possibility of renewal |
| Work location | Kinki district - Kyoto |
| Qualifications | [Details of required special expertise, qualification of the specific fields or degrees, etc.]<br>Must have a doctoral degree |
| Compensation | [Details of salary, working hours, holiday, period of employment and insurance, accommodation, etc.]<br><br>Business hours:<br>Discretionary labor system, based on 7 hours, 45 minutes (8:30–17:15 work schedule with a one-hour break) per day, 38 hours 45 minutes per week.<br>Days off: Saturdays, Sundays, National holidays, Year-end and New Year holidays, Foundation Day, and summer vacation.<br><br>Salary and Allowance: To be determined in accordance with Kyoto University regulations<br><br>Social insurance:<br>(1) National Public Service Mutual Aid Associations<br>(2) Employee's pension insurance<br>(3) Unemployment insurance<br>(4) Worker's accident insurance |
| Application period | 2019/12/10 - 2020/02/10 Deadline for receipt |
| Application /selection /notification of result /contact details | [Application method (Application documents/ Submission methods of Postal mail, e-mail, Web application (including description for using JREC-IN Portal "Web application" function) etc./ Where to send documents such as address, e-mail address, etc.)]<br>Candidates should submit the following documents by mail:<br>(1) Curriculum Vitae with photo<br>(2) Full list of research publications<br>(3) Summary of past research activities, educational experiences and future plans of research<br>Please write "Lecturer Application (I) at the Medical Education Center of the Faculty of Medicine, in red ink on the envelope. |

https://jrecin.jst.go.jp/seek/SeekJorDetail?fn=4&ln=1&id=D119120597&ls_jor=1&print=1 1/2

| | |
|---|---|
| | Mailing address for the application is:<br>Medical Education Center of Graduate School of Medicine, Kyoto University, Yoshida-konoe-cho, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto, 606-8501, JAPAN<br><br>[Selection process (selection method and hiring decision), notification of result]<br>The Selection Committee qualifies all candidates, based on the documents submitted. Selected candidates will be contacted for an interview.<br><br>[Contact details (department, official position, name, e-mail address, and phone number of the responsible person)] * Important<br>Professor Tadashi Isa<br>Head, Department of Physiology and Neurobiology, Graduate School of Medicine, Kyoto University, Japan<br>Phone: +81-75-753-4351, Fax: +81-75-753-4349<br>E-Mail: isa.tadashi.7u[at]kyoto-u.ac.jp (please replace [at]with @). |
| Online Submission | Online Submission is Not Available.<br>JREC-IN Portal web application: Not available<br>Email Application: Not available<br>Recruiting Institution's Web application system: Not available |
| Additional information | The university will not return your application documents. Personal information contained in the application documents will be used solely for the purpose of screening applicants, and never for any other purposes.<br>The Faculty of Medicine is developing a culturally-diverse faculty and strongly encourages applications regardless of gender or disability.<br>The university is an Equal Opportunity, Affirmative Action Employer. |

JREC-IN Portal
for all researchers and research staff

国立研究開発法人 科学技術振興機構 Japan Science and Technology Agency

| | |
|---|---|
| Data number | D120021381 |
| Date of publication | 2020/03/04 |
| Date of update | 2020/03/04 |
| Title | Notice of Position Available for Native or Near Native Speaker of English |
| Institution | Nanzan University |
| Department | Faculty of Foreign Studies, Department of British and American Studies |
| Institution type | Private university |
| Job posting URL | https://www.nanzan-u.ac.jp/Menu/recruit/pdf/200220-en_en.pdf |
| Content of job information | [Explanation of institution (recruitment background, institution details, explanation of project, etc.)]<br>The Department of British and American Studies, Faculty of Foreign Studies of Nanzan University announces the establishment of a search committee to fill one limited-term post for an ESL/EFL assistant professor.<br><br>[Job details (duties, subject responsible for, etc.)]<br>Area of Specialization:ESL/EFL<br>Courses to be taught:Departmental English Courses<br><br>[Address of work location and other information]<br>Department of British and American Studies<br>Faculty of Foreign Studies<br>Nanzan University<br>18 Yamazato-cho, Showa-ku<br>Nagoya 466-8673 JAPAN<br><br>[Available positions (Job title, number of positions, etc.)]<br>Job Title: Assistant Professor<br>Number of Positions: 1<br><br>[Starting date]<br>1 September 2020 |
| Research field | 1. Area Humanities<br>Discipline ESL/EFL |
| Job type | 1. Associate Professor/Lecturer (full-time) level |
| Employment status | Full-time(Nontenured)<br>Term: Two-year appointment (One renewal possible) |
| Work location | Tokai district - Aichi |
| Qualifications | [Details of required special expertise, qualification of the specific fields or degrees, etc.]<br>(1) The applicant must be a native or near-native speaker of English.<br>(2) The applicant must have completed a master's degree (MA), preferably in TESOL. If the MA is in a field other than TESOL, then an internationally recognized ESL/EFL certification is required. (E.g. Cambridge DELTA, Cambridge CELTA, etc.)<br>(3) Japanese language ability sufficient to enable the applicant to participate in daily administrative duties of regular faculty members is highly desirable, and preferable.<br>(4) After appointment, the applicant must reside in an area easily accessible to Nanzan University Nagoya Campus. |
| Compensation | [Details of salary, working hours, holiday, period of employment and insurance, accommodation, etc.]<br>Please refer to the official Japanese version.<br><br>Under the professional discretionary labor system, discretionary workers are expected to work* six days a week.<br>If you work on a prescribed working day, the prescribed working time of the day is considered to be 6 hours and 40 minutes. |
| Application period | 2020/04/15 Deadline for receipt |
| Application /selection /notification of result /contact details | [Application method (Application documents/ Submission methods of Postal mail, e-mail, Web application (including description for using JREC-IN Portal "Web application" function) etc./ Where to send documents such as address, e-mail address, etc.)]<br>(1) Curriculum vitae<br>(2) List of research and teaching achievements (papers, books, and monographs, including the MA or PhD theses)<br>(3) Abstract of each publication listed in (2) above. (Approximately 400 characters in Japanese or 200 words in English.) |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | (4) Three recent major publications. (Off-prints or copies are acceptable. In the list of publications, please indicate these with a circle.)<br>(5) Proof of the highest degree achieved. (Copy of a diploma is acceptable)<br>(6) One letter of recommendation. (The relationship between the applicant and referee must be made clear in the reference. Please submit in a sealed envelope.)<br><br>Application and accompanying documents should be submitted to:<br><br>Search Committee, Department of British and American Studies<br>Office of Faculty of Foreign Studies<br>Nanzan University<br>18 Yamazato-cho, Showa-ku<br>Nagoya 466-8673 JAPAN<br><br>[Selection process (selection method and hiring decision), notification of result]<br>Applicants who pass the document screening will be invited to come to Nanzan University for an interview with a demonstration class. (Those invited for an interview will be required to bear their own travel expense.)<br><br>[Contact details (department, official position, name, e-mail address, and phone number of the responsible person)] * Important<br>Office of Faculty of Foreign Studies<br>E-mail: f-s@nanzan-u.ac.jp | |
| Attached documents | 1.200220-en_en.pdf | |
| Online Submission | Online Submission is Not Available. | |
| | JREC-IN Portal web application | Not available |
| | Email Application | Not available |
| | Recruiting Institution's Web application system | Not available |
| Additional information | [This English translation is prepared from the official Japanese announcement. Please refer to the official Japanese version for clarifications.]<br>(1) Please note that submitted documents such as off-prints and copies will not be returned. For books, if you prefer them to be returned, please enclose a return envelope with stamps to cover the postage.<br>(2) All personal information provided on the application will be handled with the utmost care in accordance with the University's privacy regulations. The information will not be used for any purpose other than screening applicants for the position.<br>(3) Applicants whose limited-term contract period with Nanzan School Corporation exceeds 5 consecutive years* during their appointment are not eligible for this position.<br><br>*Please note that a limited-term employment contract blank period of less than six calendar months is not considered a “blank period" when calculating for the five consecutive years.<br><br>The job titles "Assistant Professor" and "Tokubetsu ninyo koshi" at Nanzan University in this job advertisement correspond to the JREC-IN Portal job type "Associate Professor/Lecturer (full-time) level." | |